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AUTHOR Hunkins, Francis P.; Spears, Patricia F.

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ABSTRACT

In reviewing the situation in social studies education in general and the place of social studies in the curriculum, this paper focuses on the concept of the evolving individual, a person characterized in social studies curriculum by encountering, decision-making, and taking action. Chapter I, a position statement, discusses the nature and goals of the social studies as distinguished from the social sciences and outlines the parameters of a social studies program in line with the position taken. The current status of citizenship education and implications for changes in citizenship education are considered in Chapter II in relation to curriculum development. Chapter III presents an example of the curriculum for the evolving individual, and discusses definitions of curriculum and its components. A curriculum model for action is developed in diagrammatic fashion, the learning encounter envisioned with components adjustable to individual needs. Issues in evaluating the model are discussed in Chapter IV; implications for continuing teacher education in Chapter V; and reflections on the challenge of pursuing an education for evolving individual conclude Chapter VI. (KSM)

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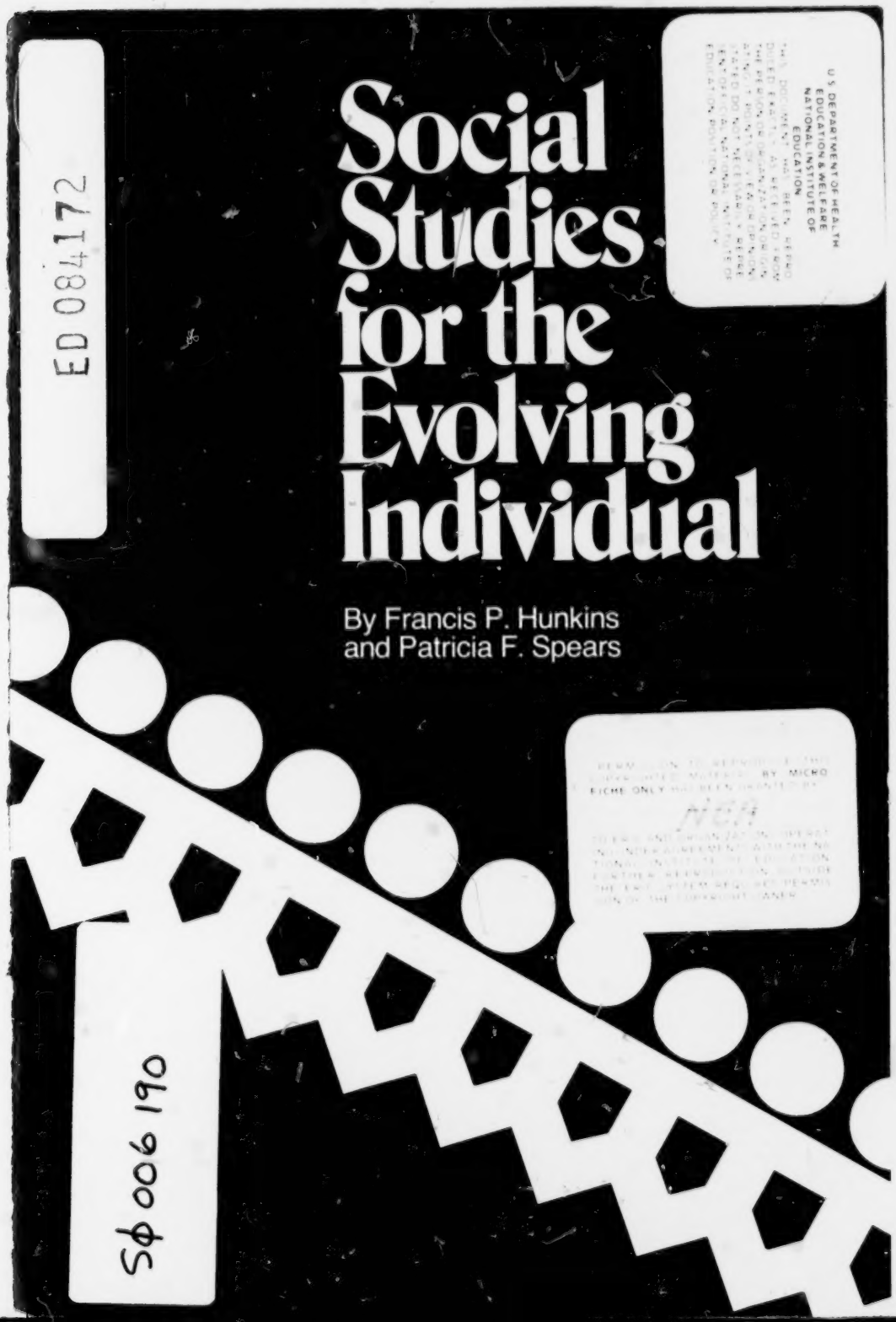

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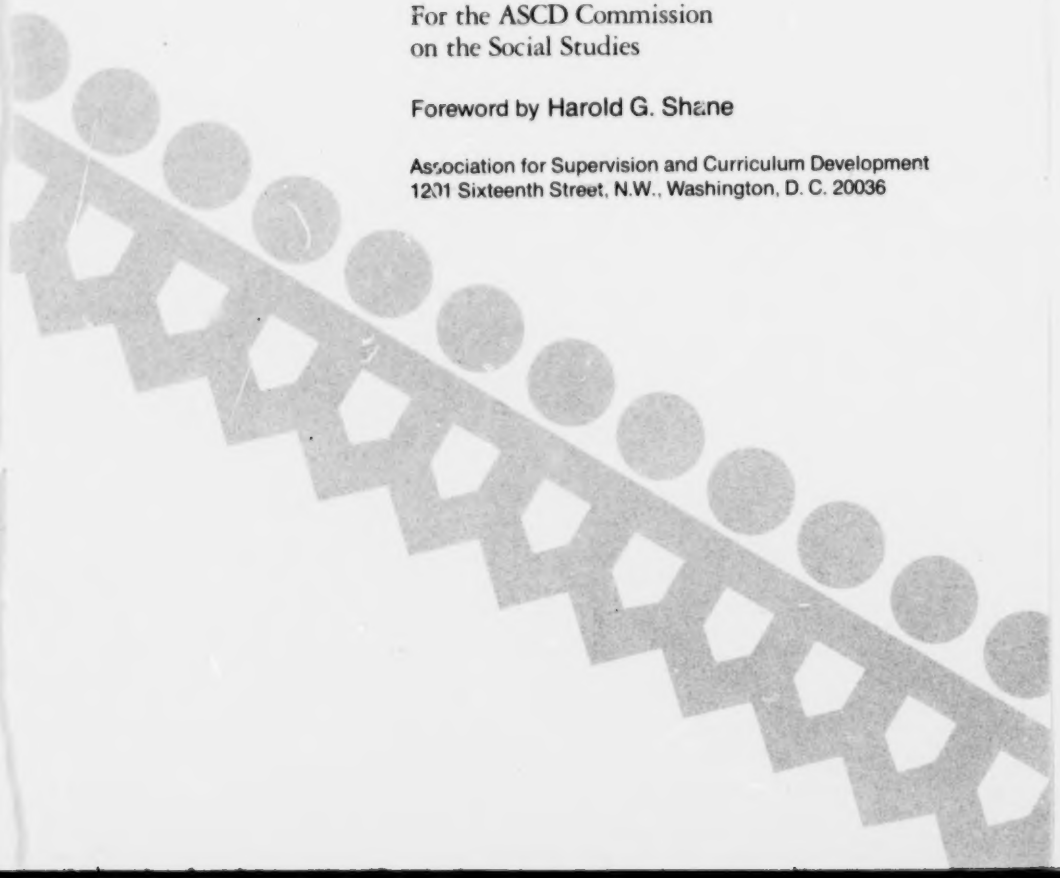
Social Studies for the Evolving Individual

By Francis P. Hunkins
and Patricia F. Spears

For the ASCD Commission
on the Social Studies

Foreword by Harold G. Shane

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036



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Francis P. Hunkins

Patricia F. Spears

Since 1966, FRANCIS P. HUNKINS has been at the University of Washington, Seattle, where he is Professor of Education.

He is the author of the fifth grade textbook and teacher's guide, *Asking About the U.S.A. and Its Neighbors* (American Book Company, 1971), and the college textbook, *Questioning Strategies and Techniques* (Allyn and Bacon, 1972). In addition to conducting research funded by the U.S. Office of Education, Dr. Hunkins has authored over 35 articles dealing with the areas of social studies education, general curriculum, and teaching strategies. He is active in consulting with school districts around the country as well as with various companies.

PATRICIA F. SPEARS is a Social Studies Consultant with the Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

Before joining the Department of Education, she was, for five years, a secondary classroom teacher, and was Social Studies Chairperson of a large Florida high school. While working toward a Ph.D., she was a graduate teaching assistant at Florida State University. Dr. Spears has published in both state and national publications, and serves on numerous committees, including the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Social Justice for Women.

Foreword

IN AN AGE in which our language bristles with superlatives, I am reluctant to contribute to the overuse of such terms as "superb," "brilliant," "profound," or "seminal." But in preparing a foreword to the report of the ASCD Commission on the Social Studies, I find myself in all honesty impelled to say that the Commission, through its eloquent spokesmen, Francis P. Hunkins and Patricia F. Spears, has developed a profound, well-documented, and—yes—an *exciting* monograph!

Truth to tell, I read *Social Studies for the Evolving Individual* twice in succession on the same day to try to isolate the reasons I found it so interesting. For one thing, it is crisply and clearly written and very much to the point. Second, it is virtually stripped of the pedagogical cant that some reports employ in a futile effort to sound profound.

Third, and most important in the tradition of our ASCD publications program, this brochure is stimulating, highly provocative, and a long stride ahead of being *merely* timely or contemporary. Furthermore, in a world suffering sorely from information overload, the six chapters say a great deal in a small number of pages.

Readers will vary in choosing a favorite chapter. Without demeaning any of the sections, I found Chapter III especially down-to-earth, Chapter IV a first-rate study of evaluation, and Chapter V a helpful commentary on new directions in teacher preparation.

In a phrase, this is a statement you will want to read and to remember. Our appreciation and congratulations are due the authors and the seven Commission members.

Indiana University
August 1973

HAROLD G. SHANE, *President 1973-74*
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

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Introduction

THE ASCD Commission on the Social Studies was formed in 1969. Its charge: to review the situation in social studies education and to develop a position paper concerning the place of the social studies in the curriculum as a whole. The effort was carried out by the members of the Commission writing a number of short papers on different aspects of the social studies. Then, two members were added to the Commission who took these short papers and shaped them into a single position paper. The most difficult part of the process was getting the Commission to arrive at consensus on a final draft of the position statement. Several versions were reviewed and debated before this final version was accepted.

The principal concern of the position paper is the "evolving individual." The term is used here to present a broader concept than that of "citizen." The emphasis here is on an individual who can use the problem-solving method to arrive at independent decisions and who has the autonomy as a person to act on his decisions. The curriculum plan to foster this kind of individual is one which uses a topical approach.

The heart of the curriculum is the encounter in which the individual meets real social problems and must use his powers of analysis and decision making to arrive at his own position with respect to them. This person cannot be quantified, for, if he is to function effectively in our ever-changing society, he must constantly be interacting with his environment and altering his belief system because of these encounters. Encountering, decision making, and taking action are the characteristics of this evolving person who experiences the social studies curriculum of the future.

BOB L. TAYLOR, *Chairman*
ASCD Commission on the Social Studies

Preface

THE PURPOSE of this document is to provide direction for educators with regard to the social studies. In an age of uncertainty such as this, achieving relevant forms of social education is a major challenge; it is a challenge that began in the early years of this century, but, as time passes, progressively grows more urgent.

The concept of "social studies" has been a part of our language for over half a century. Its first official use was by the Committee on Social Studies, which was part of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association in 1913. The Committee's report, published in 1916 as a Bulletin of the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior, tried to set a new direction for social education.[1]

The Committee on Social Studies declared that the conscious and constant purpose of the social studies was the cultivation of good citizenship. It defined the social studies as all subject matter relating directly to the organization and development of human society and to man as a member of social groups. It further declared that the selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by pressing social problems. Heavily influenced by the teaching of John Dewey, the Committee opted for the principle of immediacy and utility in the instruction of the citizen over that of the teaching of formal disciplines. Decrying the notion that everything that is taught is learned, the report quoted John Dewey's position as follows:

> We are continually uneasy about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present youth would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational

[1] Bureau of Education. "The Social Studies in Secondary Education." Bulletin No. 28. Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, 1916.

ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.[2]

In this vein, the Committee report was clearly a manifesto of freedom from the control of college entrance requirements as well as of college and university scholars over the curriculum of the school. The social studies were to be directed to the education of all citizens, and not just to a cultivated elite. The social studies were to be especially tailored with the general education of all citizens in mind, and immediate needs and utility were to be the guiding principles. The Committee saw that there was more to the education of a citizen than merely the mastery of particular subject matter, and attached little importance to so many hours of this and so many hours of that in the education of citizens. It called upon the social scientists to stop contending over the extent to which each social science discipline was to be included in the curriculum. It asked them to unite and to determine among themselves how each of these disciplines could be made to contribute most effectively to the purposes of secondary education.

The high resolve of the Committee to develop new programs in social studies that would focus directly on the development of good citizenship fell victim to the traditional belief that knowledge, as derived from the disciplines, was the road to good citizenship. Only the most daring schools departed from the safe haven of history. In effect, noble and distinctive purposes seen by the Committee were trapped in the rigidity of traditional disciplines. The new term, "social studies," became widely used, but little was really changed.

In his presidential address at the National Council for the Social Studies convention in 1970, Shirley Engle stated that,

> Because we continue to profess a goal inconsonant with the means we adopt, all efforts to define and give sanction to the term "Social Studies," following those of the Committee and the Commission, have ended in failure. The so-called "new" Social Studies of the '60's, while laudably embracing the principle of inquiry over that of rote memory in teaching the Social Sciences, has largely skirted or ignored the question of the ethical component of citizenship education.[3]

Engle continued:

> We, of the profession, have not immediately and clearly grasped this dis-

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

[3] Shirley H. Engle. "Exploring the Meaning of the Social Studies." *Social Education* 35 (3): 282; March 1971.

tinction between Social Science and Social Studies. We have devoted our major energies, including our efforts in the "new" Social Studies, to making the Social Sciences alone suffice for the broader needs of citizenship education. In this vein, we have tried to organize the teaching of the Social Sciences in all kinds of orders, sequences, and cycles; we have tried to organize the teaching around concepts, generalizations, problems, and values; we have tried fusion, integration, and correlation of the social science disciplines; we have tried cases, projects, and contracts as organizing principles; we have prettied up our textbooks with maps, pictures, diagrams, graphs, charts, and a dozen other paraphernalia; we have thrown in audio-visual aids; we have "Brunerized" the subjects and made inquiry our god. These attempts to fit square pegs into round holes have never been entirely successful. It should be apparent that the social science disciplines, by themselves, do not constitute the whole of citizenship education. The effort to force citizenship education into a strict social science mold either does violence to Social Science, asking more of it than it has to offer, or it neglects the ethical component of citizenship altogether.[4]

Charles A. Beard pointed succinctly to the distinction between social science and social education many years ago when he said, "Insofar as social science is truly scientific, it is neutral; as taught in schools it is and must be ethical; it must make choices and emphasize values with reference to commanding standards." [5]

We have compounded our confusion in this matter by our ambivalence over what constitutes good citizenship. Is the goal of social studies education to produce the "good" citizen in the sense of one who complies, is orderly and law abiding? Or is this citizen one who questions, inquires, criticizes, and engages himself actively in the reform of the system? Can a neat accommodation be made between these different ends? Can we produce a person who "fits in" and who "speaks out" at one and the same time?

One must decide whether to opt for a society characterized by dynamism, change, and pragmatic flexibility or for a society characterized by static institutions, resistance to change, ritualism, bureaucracy, and mechanistic organization. One must decide whether the American Dream is a finished product as of 1973 or whether there is still work to be done. On this judgment will rest a decision as to what kind of citizen we should seek to produce and, consequently, as to what direction social education ought to take.

[4] *Ibid.*

[5] Charles A. Beard. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. Part I. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. p. 94.

Certainly, some balancing of alternatives may be necessary and desirable, but what admixture of such ingredients as social conformity and loyalty, on the one hand, with realism, social activism, and the persistent pursuit of greater perfection in the American system, on the other, is possible as well as serviceable to us all? Given the extent of social pluralism in American society and in the face of the grievous problems and disharmonies which beset us, how, save through development and change, can this American system of free government be preserved? And, if it is within our power to produce a different breed of citizen, one who will use political power in a positive fashion to achieve a higher quality of life for all, will he be one whose chief attributes are a questioning attitude, a healthy skepticism, a willingness to change, and the imagination to create new social arrangements; or will his chief attribute be loyalty to existing institutions; and, if both, how much of each?

It would seem obvious that tomorrow's citizen must be better educated than today's. Our diverse problems are much too complex for simplified answers. Despite this need, educators are faced today with the difficult task of making social studies meaningful, relevant, alive, and useful to students. Too frequently we teach a simplistic and distorted version of American culture no longer accepted by critical scholars in the field and having no obvious relationship to the current scene.[6] Student indifference and mistrust of such teaching are endemic.

Many students who have experienced the social studies have not become functioning, good citizens. The current scene bears testimony to this. "Good citizens" have spoiled our waters, raped our land, and polluted our air. Good citizens in our government have behaved in such ways as to enrage, discourage, and disenchant large numbers of Americans. There is inequity within this political body. Laws have been enacted to stifle the complaints of those who have had their rights denied. A large segment of the youth and an increasing number of the adult population have evidenced disenchantment or indifference with the state of the nation. There would seem to be need for the development of a new consciousness—for a revolution of consciousness emphasizing values which would cause major readjustment in our present political body.

[6] Robert D. Hess. "Political Socialization in the Schools." *Harvard Educational Review* 38 (3): 528-35; Summer 1968.

It is to such problems that this report addresses itself. What are the proper goals of citizenship education? Given these goals, what is the appropriate content and method of social studies instruction? How can social studies be made more meaningful and useful to youth? How can a new social consciousness be achieved?

The Nature of This Document

This document is intended to stimulate debate among educators in general and social studies educators in particular. It is to provide viewpoints for reaction. Hopefully, readers will not say "I agree" or "I disagree" and then dismiss the ideas presented here. Currently, there is much interest in making social studies education relevant to the times, with the purpose of enabling the individual to use his experiences in social studies for dealing effectively with life.

Recently, the National Council for the Social Studies published "Curriculum Guidelines" setting standards for social studies curricula, K-12. The present ASCD document has taken positions different from the NCSS document. This Commission, while granting the contribution made by the NCSS document, believes that it does not go far enough to achieve the goals that were outlined so many years ago at the very beginning of the social studies movement. The incorporation of these goals in social education is more urgent today than ever. The purpose of this document is to encourage renewed debate.

This document represents the ideas of the several members of the ASCD Commission on the Social Studies. The writers may have injected some of their own ideas, but the basic result represents the composite thinking of the Commission members. While certain chapters have drawn more heavily on the views of certain members than of others, the document is truly a Commission statement.

This synthesis of ideas is not to present a final word with respect to the social studies. In our time of rapid change, there is no last word, for it is necessary constantly to be studying and analyzing the society, the needs of individuals, and our expanding knowledge. Since reality is not static, the ideal social studies program must be evolutionary, never completed. But we need commitment to an evolutionary program approach. If commitment can be kindled, innovation will be forthcoming.

Chapter I

A Position Statement

The Nature and Goals of the Social Studies as Distinguished from the Social Sciences

THE ASCD Commission on the Social Studies reaffirms the position on the nature and purpose of the social studies first enunciated by the Committee on Social Studies in 1916.[1] The Commission sees this early statement as setting a necessary but as yet unrealized goal for social studies education. In 1967, James P. Shaver, whose thinking has strongly influenced the Commission, contrasted the traditional view of the social studies with the view needed. Shaver wrote:

> The term *social studies* has traditionally been defined in reference to the social sciences. That is, the *social sciences* are first defined as the scholarly fields of study of man in his social environment. . . . The *social studies* are then defined as the social sciences adapted and simplified for pedagogical purposes.
>
> This definition has perhaps done more to stifle creative curriculum work in the social studies than any other factor. For it assumes *by the very sequence of definition*—from the social sciences to the social studies—that the criteria for curriculum selection and development in social studies should come from the social sciences, not from an independent view of what the social studies should be about. The restricting effect of this definition has proved an outstanding example of the limits which language can place on our thinking. Social studies educators have become so conditioned to assuming that the curricular flow must be from the social sciences, including history, to the social studies, and that the social sciences are the only legitimate source of content for the social studies, that our curricula belie common statements of the objectives for social studies instruction.
>
> The result is perhaps the most striking paradox of American education: We find in social studies publications an abundance of grand statements about

[1] Bureau of Education. "The Social Studies in Secondary Education." Bulletin No. 28. Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, 1916.

responsibility for citizenship education and the need to educate reflective, intelligent, rational citizens to participate in the decision-making processes of a free society. Yet "social studies" curriculum projects, textbooks, and classrooms reflect little direct concern with analytic concepts appropriate to analyzing public issues.[2]

Shaver suggested that the way out of this paradox is a more adequate definition of the social studies. To this end he continued:

> One way to resolve this objectives-content paradox would be to adopt a more adequate definition of social studies, a definition based on the long-standing commitments to citizenship education. . . . Such a definition should begin with the clear recognition that *social studies education is general education.* In discussing social studies, we are talking about a set of required courses, a program intended for all students. . . . A reasonable focus for such a rationale in a democratic society is the preparation of students for more reflective and effective political participation in their society—a society whose central commitment to human dignity assumes that all citizens have contributions to make to the determination of public policies, and that the schools should foster the ability to participate readily and rationally.
>
> Explicit attention to these societal assumptions leads to a more viable definition of *social studies as that part of the school's general education program which is concerned with the preparation of citizens for participation in a democratic society.* Social studies is not, then, simply an offshoot of the social sciences, with content to be dictated by the interests and desires of academicians in the social sciences and history. In fact, teachers and curriculum builders willing to structure their work by this definition will need, first of all, to ask themselves, "What are the prerequisites of intelligent political participation?" rather than, "What do social scientists or historians consider to be the legitimate domains of knowledge?" And, secondly, they will need to go beyond the social sciences for their content.[3]

In line with the Shaver quotation, the Commission sees the time as having come when the comprehensive social education of citizens must become the forthright and uncompromised goal of the social studies. The Commission sees it as no longer appropriate to think of social studies as being based primarily on the separate social sciences however simplified or organized for purposes of teaching. The Commission resists the effort to fix the disciplines of the social studies under the deceptive label "the new social studies." It sees the "new" social studies movement as a diversion from the legitimate goals of citizenship education. It sees much that is called the "new" social

[2] James P. Shaver. "Social Studies: The Need for Redefinition." *Social Education* 31 (7): 588; November 1967.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 589.

studies as being more concerned with the preservation of the disciplines in the curriculum for purely academic reasons than with any contributions these disciplines might make to the comprehensive goals of citizenship education.

The Commission comes out forthrightly for a more holistic approach to the social education of citizens, an approach that would focus study directly on the problem in the society, an approach that would draw broadly on all sources of enlightenment including the social sciences but not exclusively so, and these only insofar as each is relevant to an understanding of a social problem. This is not to say that the separate social sciences would never be studied systematically, but it is to say that such study would never be taken as sufficient, if standing alone, nor as even appropriate if carried on without recourse to the social problems which the study would be supposed to illuminate.

Shirley H. Engle recently explained the shortcomings of the traditional conception of social studies as follows:

> A . . . shortcoming of the notion that the social studies are merely the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes is the inadequacy of the social sciences, when taken alone, to fulfill the need of citizenship education. This is not to say that the social sciences are not an important part of the education of citizens. It is merely to say that they are not a sufficient basis for such education. To make the social sciences the sole basis of the social education of citizens is to ignore the increasingly recognized fact that children and youth learn more of their social behaviors from the informal theatres of education outside the regular course structure than they learn within organized education. These theatres include the life of the school itself. To make the social sciences the sole basis of citizenship education is to place values and the valuing process outside the pale of social education, since the social sciences are value free; they are not concerned with how people make social judgments. The concern of the social sciences is to describe social behavior at a given time and place—a useful enough addition to the stable of intelligences of the citizen but hardly an adequate one. To make the teaching of different social sciences, and only some of them at that, the only source of citizenship education is to treat our problems piecemeal, for no social science taken alone describes more than a fraction of human behavior. Each social scientist assumes as he works that all else remains the same, an assumption generally ignored in the teaching of the social sciences in the schools. We all know that all else does not remain the same. To pretend so is to rob the student of necessary experience in synthesizing and resolving the conflicts between the various models provided by the social sciences, as these would operate in real social situations. To make the teaching of the social sciences the sole basis of citizenship education denies the student the experience . . . of working with information provided by the social sciences as well as other important sources in the necessarily topical manner in which social problems

arise in life. Citizenship education should place its focus on the utilization of knowledge from whatever source in meeting the practical problems which confront a citizen.[4]

The Necessary Parameters of a Social Studies Program

In line with the basic position outlined here, the purposes of the social studies would include: (a) *socialization,* aimed at helping the evolving individual to become an effective member of social groups; (b) *decision-making processes,* aimed at helping the evolving individual to make effective use of intellectual skills in reaching decisions about his social concerns; (c) *values and valuing,* aimed at helping the evolving individual to identify, examine, formulate, and evaluate his own values and to act in accord with his considered values; (d) *citizenship,* aimed at helping the evolving individual to use more effectively the processes of a representative-democratic government; (e) *knowledge acquisition,* aimed at helping the evolving individual to acquire and utilize information and intellectual skills provided through the social sciences together with other organized disciplines in dealing with his social concerns.

Does our existing social studies program meet these purposes? Do we really have social studies in our schools? In many schools a social studies program does not really exist. While the "new social studies" have made some advancements, the social studies still fall short of the widely proclaimed purposes set for them.

First, the new social studies primarily are subject centered. The number of alternative disciplines offered for inclusion in the curriculum has been increased and the treatment of each expanded. But the separate disciplines do not constitute a social studies program, and little thought has been given to how all the social sciences are to be melded into a social studies program which provides a total unified education for the evolving individual.

Second, the new social studies, as did the old, continue to ignore or minimize the position of values and valuing in the life of the individual. Values are either taken for granted or treated in a shallow, sentimental fashion out of context with social problems and without

[4] Shirley H. Engle. "The Future of Social Studies Education and NCSS." *Social Education* 34 (7): 778 and 780; November 1970.

any real recourse to the factual basis which the social sciences might conceivably supply.

Third, the new social studies stress the mastery of social science content which cannot alone guarantee the effectively functioning citizen. If the social science disciplines are to play a part in shaping the beliefs of citizens, they must be put to practical use by the evolving citizen in meeting his real life problems. The probability of this utilization's taking place is nil if the social sciences are taught as separate entities which are removed from any practical application to the social problems of youth and society.

In order to cope with the dilemma as to what to include in the social studies curriculum, we should think of the social sciences not as an end to be sought but rather as being instrumental to the larger task of citizenship development. By taking this position, the question of which social sciences to teach and which to ignore is eliminated as an appropriate query. Each of the social sciences may contribute to the foundation of beliefs; hence, none can be ignored. The question now becomes, "How can we successfully orchestrate the various social sciences and other studies of man in such a way that they contribute to the formation of sound beliefs about the real world in which we live?"

If academic subjects are treated as instrumental to the effective development of the evolving citizen, we avoid the deficiency of equating the social studies with the social sciences alone. Here the appropriate question becomes, "How can the social sciences taken in concert with knowledge derived from other subjects such as art, literature, religion, music, philosophy, and ethics be brought intelligently to bear by the evolving citizen on the concerns of our society?"

By treating subjects as instruments for developing the effective citizen, we are not ignoring the heterogeneous experiences which youth have outside the classroom as a bona fide part of the curriculum. The education of the evolving citizen will draw heavily on the real world outside the classroom for the formation of beliefs; hence, these out-of-class experiences are instrumental in the achievement of our goal. The right question becomes, "How can we systematically relate outside experiences with the organized work of the classroom?" We need to ascertain that what we do in the social studies classroom enables the student to derive more meaning from his out-of-classroom experiences.

Students who come to school "turned on" often are "turned off" by their school experiences. In the social studies, we should make sure that the school experiences are part of the real world.

Seen in this light, the social education of citizens might include the following components:

1. The social sciences treated appropriately as sciences and taught as sciences, with due recognition of the nature and limitation of the scientific approach and the tentativeness and relativity of the conclusions of social sciences

2. The various traditions, histories, philosophies, and religions of peoples of the world treated as value exemplars

3. A vast reservoir of other experiences, humane and current, including the performing arts (which may well have more to do with determining the social behavior of students than do our classes in social science) and including relevant information from the humanistic disciplines, that is, literature, art, music, and the like

4. The life on the street including that of the school itself, which is, in fact (whether we recognize it or not), the student's point of reference in the light of which all other information is considered.

The Evolving Individual and Society: An Interactive Position

If education is to survive as a viable social institution, it must be prepared to generate major alternatives to its present models. Schooling in the future, Toffler[5] suggests, must develop in students the skills for learning, relating, and choosing. This, of course, implies that education is more than mere socialization; it is more than the development of rationality. When one learns intellectually, it inevitably involves valuing and an accompanying emotional dimension.

In an address to the National Council for the Social Studies, Jarolimek made the following observation regarding the social studies:

> Social studies education through the years has largely concerned itself with the attainment of goals dealing with knowledge and knowledge-related skills and abilities. Attention to values has, until very recently, been of the most superficial sort. And even in recent years serious attention to values and valuing

[5] Alvin Toffler. *Future Shock.* New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1970. p. 414.

has not been widespread. The assumption always has been that proper knowledge will lead to proper action.[6]

Social studies education through the years has largely ignored the emotional and value components of knowing and has concerned itself with factual knowledge. The extent to which the content of the social studies will be useful will depend upon the redefinition of rationality as a comprehensive act of thinking, feeling, valuing, and doing. Social studies education ought not to continue to operate under the assumption that factual knowledge and/or social indoctrination necessarily translate into responsible citizenship. The development of a new conception of rationality is required—a conception that allows for a more holistic notion of man and his ways of knowing and relating to his world.

Maslow describes the human being as "having an essence, a biological nature, membership in a species." [7] In a further elaboration, he speaks of self as:

> . . . a kind of intrinsic nature which is very subtle, which is not necessarily conscious, which has to be sought for, and which has to be uncovered and then built upon, actualized, taught, educated.[8]

This notion of the self to be "uncovered and actualized" is in sharp contrast to the notions of the behaviorists and associationists who presently dominate learning theory in education. To this point, Maslow wrote:

> This doctrine of a Real Self to be uncovered and actualized is also a total rejection of the *tabula rasa* notions of the behaviorists and associationists who often talk as if *anything* can be learned, *anything* can be taught, as if the human being is a sort of a passive clay to be shaped, controlled, reinforced, modified in any way that somebody arbitrarily decides.[9]

Operationally, the notion of the "real" self has serious implications for changing education in general, and the social studies specifically. Humane or humanistic education is both a philosophical and a psychological disposition regarding the development of the human being. Translated into day-to-day practices in the school, it means fostering growth toward greater self-definition, clarification of identity, and

[6] John Jarolimek. "Concerning Matters of Activism in Social Studies Education." *Social Education* 36 (2): 149; February 1972.

[7] Abraham H. Maslow. "Some Educational Implications of the Humanistic Psychologies." *Harvard Educational Review* 38 (4): 688; Fall 1968.

[8] *Ibid.*

[9] *Ibid.*

response to one's inner self. It is a learning experiment that fosters and supports through its design the formation of individual consciousness, aesthetic standards, self-knowledge, and capacity for creating one's own joys. A learning environment with these qualities must allow solitude, self-direction, and time to encounter oneself in a multitude of new experiences.

The importance of finding and knowing one's intimate self for the achievement of sincere involvement in the concerns of one's society must be acknowledged by the social studies. However, while this is necessary, taken alone, it is not a sufficient basis for the social studies. Taken alone and to its extreme, it is a position that can result in the denial of society. What is being brought into question here is whether man is innately social or innately asocial. The latter position would totally negate any value to the existence of the social studies. The social studies is posited on the assumption that man is innately social and needs society to remain human. Society, however, is perceived by this Commission as the interaction and, if need be, the compromise of diverse human endeavors. As such, it is subject to the intimate needs of men. Diversity does not *per se* mean disagreement or inability to build society together. As Carl Rogers has said: "How does it happen that the deeper we go into ourselves as particular and unique, seeking for our own individual identity, the more we find the whole human species?" [10]

The practice of separating the emotional from the intellectual and the societal from the individual is fallacious and leads to a loss of control by man over his own behavior. Man victimizes himself by emphasizing the emotional, the intellectual, the social, or the individual to the neglect of any of the others. This Commission takes the interactive position as the only valid basis for the social studies.

Paralleling the need for a more holistic approach to the intellectual development of the individual is the need for a more flexible and realistic approach to the development of social institutions. There is no chance for the development of responsible, democratically-oriented citizenship in a society that refuses to permit its citizens to confront realistically the existing problems, issues, and potentialities of the day. This is true for young citizens still in school as well as for adults. Many young people

[10] Carl R. Rogers. *Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practices, Implications, and Theory.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951.

already understand what some adults have not yet learned: that the "good ole days" were not so good for all Americans and that reliance upon only the old ways steeped in fear, ignorance, racism, and ethnocentrism is not a solution.

If young citizens are to develop the full range of their decision-making capabilities, they must be encouraged to grapple honestly and positively with such social concerns as racial inequality, war, poverty, and other forms of human suffering. They must be encouraged to approach human institutions not as though these were fixed entities to be revered but as malleable instruments of social improvement. The social studies must unleash and utilize the full creative potentialities of students to work out improved alternatives to present social institutions. Viewed in this way, any indoctrination of students is inappropriate in the social studies.

Confrontation with current problems both of an individual and a social nature needs to be the major methodological strategy of the social studies. Confrontation, as intended here, would include the definition of problems for student consideration but would go well beyond; it would involve youngsters in delving into their own personal conflicts and inconsistencies as well as into the conflicts and inconsistencies of society. The interaction of self and society would be confronted openly. It follows that, if such confrontation is to take place, the organization of social studies instruction must be topical as well as problem-oriented. The teaching of disciplines for their sake alone, unrelated to the current scene, is inappropriate to the social studies. The disciplines need to be taken together with other sources of knowledge as instruments for dealing realistically with the social concerns of our times.

Within the context of self-realization, a major goal of social education is to assist students in becoming both more free and more responsible. Although, on the surface, freedom and responsibility would appear to be in conflict, they are not. More responsible student action is accomplished by increasing a student's sense of his own power to take responsibility for his behavior. Responsible action is thought of here as being carefully dictated by a reasonable balance of freedom to choose from among alternatives and the responsibility to act on those decisions.

In a democracy there is potential danger when either responsibility or freedom is overstressed, one at the expense of the other. To stress one's responsibility to another person, group, or ideology, to the extent

that freedom to make changes is continually blocked, is repression. The consequence is blind perpetuation of the status quo where prevailing ways continue to be enforced, resulting in a closed society of human repression.

In contrast, when individual and collective freedom is prized at all expense and exercised indiscriminately without an accompanying balanced emphasis on responsibility for actions, unfortunate tolls are taken of human dignity and humanity. Is it essential that the two, freedom and responsibility, be thought of as existing in an inseparable relationship.

In support of this view, Brown has said:

> For a democratic society to flourish and increase in health and realistic productivity, as a society and also in terms of the welfare of the individual, its members must learn how to combine freedom with responsibility and responsibility with freedom. Each is crucial; and their combination is essential for the continued health of our society.[11]

This Commission is committed to the notion that any effort to engage young people in the social studies must contribute to the enhancement of a student's capabilities for learning, relating, and choosing. This document advocates far-reaching alternatives to present practices in the schools.

[11] George Isaac Brown. *Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education.* New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1971. pp. 228-29. Copyright © 1971 by George I. Brown. Reprinted by permission of The Viking Press, Inc.

Chapter II

The Evolving Individual

INCREASED ACTIVISM among high school, and even junior high school, students may be perceived as an indicator of the growing alienation of youth from school. Eric Van Loon generalized the high school student protest as centering about one major point: greater self-determination. "Students want more control over their lives and over their education. They fear that they, of all people, may be fast becoming the forgotten men." [1] Louis Harris concluded from extensive interviews with 2,500 subjects, consisting of students, parents, teachers, and principals, that a major factor of student unrest in high schools today relates directly to the failure of administrators to share decision-making powers with students on issues which will affect their lives.[2]

When decisions affecting the lives of students are made behind closed doors and are enforced by means of both psychological and physical threats, these decisions may result in either dependency or counter-dependency behavior from students. The submissive student becomes even more dependent upon the system for decisions, and the rebellious student has no alternative but to use his own behavior to counteract the system. In reality the result is a brutal system of self-destruction for both kinds of student responses.

The purpose of this chapter is twofold; more specifically, two questions will be considered: (a) What is the current status of citizenship education? (b) What are some implications for changes in citizenship education?

[1] Eric Van Loon. "Who Are the Activists?" *American Education* 3 (9): 28; December 1967.

[2] "What People Think About Their Schools." *Life* 66: 24; May 16, 1969.

What Is the Current Status of Citizenship Education?

For most students, civics has been designated as the course in the social studies curriculum most specifically responsible for promoting "good citizenship," although this responsibility has been shared by other courses. Other than its long-standing instructional goal of promoting patriotism, it has had a multiplicity of purposes and practices. Despite this long tradition, civics continues to be plagued by uncertainty as to its proper goals. As a result of this long equivocation by social studies education, civics has been, for the most part, poorly conceptualized, which has resulted in courses composed of unmanageable and loosely related content.

Formal programs of civic education have a long tradition in our public schools. Typically, at the secondary level, programs have attempted to: (a) bring to students a body of knowledge about the American political structure; (b) improve on the interpersonal skills of students (for example, group cooperation and participation); and (c) inculcate in students certain normative political values.

The primary basis for these curricular decisions has been "a priori" in nature. Prior to the 1950's there were few systematic research studies in the political socialization of children and youth. Since that time, the volumes of research on political socialization have increased substantially, particularly during the past decade. Many of the topics under investigation and the research methodologies used to study them are relatively new. Therefore, the reader is cautioned to exercise constraint and to view much of the findings as theoretical hypotheses requiring further study.

Coleman has defined political socialization as ". . . that process by which individuals acquire attitudes and feelings toward the political system and toward their role in it, including cognitive (what one knows or believes about the system, its existence as well as its modus operandi), feeling (how one feels toward the system, including loyalty and a sense of civic obligation), and one's sense of political competence (what one's role is or can be in the system)." [3]

Almond [4] stated, "Political socialization is the process of induction

[3] James S. Coleman. "Introduction." *Education and Political Development.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1965. p. 18.

[4] Gabriel A. Almond and James S. Coleman, editors. *The Politics of the Developing Areas.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1960. p. 27.

into the political culture." All societies transmit political orientations across generations. Were it not for the fact that each new generation is able to learn a body of political orientation from its predecessors, no given political system would be able to persist.

The way in which a society succeeds or fails to arouse support for its political system generation after generation is critical to that nation's survival. The political stability of the American political system has rested firmly upon favorably shared attitudes about government, political legitimacy, law, political leaders, and the political system in general.

The political socialization of children and youth does not, of course, occur in only one or two social institutions, such as the family, but rather it takes place in nearly all social institutions. In our society, as in all societies, it is education in general and specifically the school which is expected to function as an important agent of political socialization. Hess and Torney have hypothesized that the school ". . . is apparently the most powerful institution in the socialization of attitudes, conceptions, and beliefs about the operation of the political system." [5] The school has exercised its major formal responsibility for developing good citizenship through the social studies program; and it is only recently that systematic attempts have been made to assess the impact of the citizenship education curriculum on youth. Patrick has written: "It is difficult to determine exactly how these school experiences (both formal and informal instruction) are linked to adult political behavior, but it is probable that they have enormous impact and that they influence some life-long political attitudes." [6]

Almond and Verba [7] in their five-nation study found that manifest teaching about politics, that is, the deliberate effort to inculcate particular political attitudes and behavioral dispositions, may increase an individual's sense of political competence, but that the content and general political setting of the teaching are critical mediating factors.

[5] Robert D. Hess and Judith V. Torney. *The Development of Basic Attitudes and Values Toward Government and Citizenship During Elementary School Years.* Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Cooperative Research Project No. 1078, 1965. p. 377.

[6] John Patrick. *Political Socialization of American Youth: Implications for Secondary School Social Studies.* Research Bulletin No. 3 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: the Council, 1967. p. 30.

[7] Gabriel A. Almond and Sidney Verba. *The Civic Culture: Political Attitudes and Democracy in Five Nations.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1963. p. 361.

It would appear that the quality of human interaction in school, the manner in which power is exercised, the basis upon which status is awarded, the way rewards and punishments are assigned or executed, the acceptance or rejection of human differences and whether intelligent dissent is sanctioned and fostered, plus a myriad of other experiences in the school, are more powerful in belief formation than any prescribed courses of study or instructional teaching strategies.

An equally salient observation for a society with democratic aspirations is the documentation of the role of the school as a significant variable in maintaining sociopolitical orthodoxy and enforcing mass conformity. Friedenberg has asserted, "The most important social process taking place in our school is learning to be an American. . . . For us, conformity is a moral mandate." [8] Hess and Torney reported that "compliance to rules and authority is the major focus of education in elementary schools." [9] It would seem that an alarming number of American children learn to respond to sociopolitical issues with thoughtless conformity, outworn irrelevant slogans, and unreliable knowledge. Perhaps this type of learning was appropriate in times when the world changed little and what the young needed to know was already known by their elders. But this is not such a time; increasingly large segments of American society are being confronted with demands for change that require major restructuring of social values and social institutions. To be meaningful, civic education must become a force in the creative reordering of a more humane society.

Teacher behavior is a significant indicator of the quality of civic education in the social studies classroom. In addition to cognitive behavior, teacher instructional styles are important mediating factors on the impact of formal civics courses. Friedenberg,[10] for example, has observed that the negative quality of teacher-student interactions contributes heavily to the impairment of self-esteem, personal integrity, and autonomy of students, in their efforts to enforce rules and regulations, and exact unquestioning obedience.

The overt behavior patterns elicited and supported by school per-

[8] Edgar Z. Friedenberg. *The Vanishing Adolescent.* Boston: Beacon Press, 1959. pp. 53-54.

[9] Hess and Torney, *op. cit.*, p. 377.

[10] Friedenberg, *op. cit.*, pp. 72-95.

sonnel are critical factors in the political socialization of children. To this point, Patrick has written:

> Conformity, docility, and unquestioning obedience in the school can lead to parallel behavior in political situations outside the school. It appears doubtful that typical objectives of formal political education programs, such as development of ability to participate effectively in democratic political affairs or a disposition to honor the worth and dignity of individuals, are served by denigrating student self-esteem in the pursuit of homogenized schoolroom behavior.[11]

It seems that a school environment that seeks to de-emphasize authority and conformity and strives to support freedom of inquiry for learners must be prized above authoritarian school environments.

If we are to accept that the concomitant environment of the school is its most prevailing influence and that formal civic courses are not positively correlated with political beliefs, then the task of the school would seem twofold: (a) reshape the school environment into one which has the capacity for contributing favorably to the socialization of children, and (b) replace the present superficial and often totally irrelevant civic education courses with ones that are responsive to the needs of children and youth of the day.

A cursory review of textbook studies provided valuable insight into what is being taught in many civics courses. Upon examination of widely used civics textbooks, Smith and Patrick[12] concluded that civics for the junior high school exhibited four basic weaknesses: (a) failed to effectively integrate incongruous course content; (b) failed to represent American political life in any accurate or realistic way; (c) legitimized the inculcation of value positions through untenable moralizing; and, finally, (d) failed to assist students in developing skills of social inquiry.

Shaver,[13] in a comprehensive study of 93 secondary-level textbooks in the areas of civics or citizenship, American government, and American problems, reported similar findings. Although claims were made for the development of critical thinking, little or none of the materials operationally supported critical thinking. Textbooks which were ex-

[11] Patrick, *op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

[12] Frederick R. Smith and John J. Patrick. "Relating Social Study to Social Reality." In: Benjamin C. Cox and Byron G. Massialas, editors. *Social Studies in the United States.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967. p. 106.

[13] James Shaver. "Reflective Thinking, Values, and Social Studies Textbooks." *School Review* 73 (3): 226-57; Autumn 1965.

amined generally failed to provide opportunities for students and teachers to deal realistically with critical areas of value conflicts in American society.

Massialas [14] found, in reviewing six widely used, secondary-level textbooks in civics and government, that not only are students presented with unrealistic views of American government and society, but that controversial issues are not handled in an ethically and intellectually responsible manner. In addition, Massialas' study revealed that the six textbooks examined reflected undue emphasis upon historical events, legal structure, and formal institutional aspects of government and failed to deal with political behaviors and processes. When controversial issues were discussed, the majority of the textbooks failed explicitly or implicitly to provide students with analytical models for dealing with social issues.

The weaknesses attributed to instructional materials at the secondary levels are intensely compounded at the early and upper elementary levels with the exception of a limited number of elementary programs. Goldstein describes the early elementary program (grades 1-3) as having "a considerable amount of social studies materials of direct political relevance but little intellectual content." [15] The American Political Science Association, reporting on Pre-Collegiate Education, charged that the treatment of community services and workers does little to provide youngsters with factual information about government or to contribute to the development of the thinking processes.

At the upper elementary grade levels (4-6), discussion of government is in formal terms. The treatment of informal processes of government is nonexistent. In addition, Joyce [16] reports that elementary-level textbooks do not organize materials in such a way as to promote early learning of basic skills in higher order thinking processes, that is, making references, hypothesizing, generalizing, for two fundamental reasons. First, many school administrators and teachers have not

[14] Byron G. Massialas *et al.* "Traditional Teachers, Parochial Pedagogy." *School Review* 79 (4): 577; August 1971.

[15] "Reports of APSA Committee. Political Education in the Public Schools: The Challenge for Political Science." *Political Science,* Summer 1971. Quoting: Robert J. Goldstein. "The Elementary School Curriculum and Political Socialization." Unpublished master's thesis. p. 437.

[16] Bruce R. Joyce. "The Primary Grades." In: Benjamin C. Cox and Byron G. Massialas, editors. *Social Studies in the United States.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967. p. 27.

accepted and are consequently not operationalizing the Brunerian notions regarding the abilities of young children to deal successfully with complex concepts at their own level of experiences. Second, because many elementary social studies materials are developed around notions of the expanding environment, they are largely redundant to the child's experiences and are mere descriptions with limited data for analytical study.

What Are Some Implications for Changes in Citizenship Education?

It is abundantly clear that to persist in teaching in this vein is most assuredly to continue on a collision course with the goals of social studies education. It is not easy to denounce those exciting and active days of the 1960's or to proclaim that, in our evangelistic zeal to gain scientific respectability, we allowed ourselves to settle for less than adequate means for accomplishing our foremost goal—citizenship education. Any effort to reverse the negative effects of civics courses on the political socialization of youth must do more than instruct youngsters in the methodology of the political sciences, or any other single discipline for that matter. Unless we become serious about advancing young people toward affective goals as well as directing them to cognitive objectives, through the process of education and by other means, any design for authentic civic education simply cannot succeed.

Unfortunately, schools continue to operate as though a child's total access to knowledge is through formal and informal curricular experiences at school. In reality, this view has, of course, never been the case, and it is overwhelmingly inaccurate in today's world of "instantaneous involvement." In some instances, students come to school knowing more than they are taught in schools and knowing that the data presented to them through textbooks and by teachers are out of date and out of touch with the real world they leave when they enter the school building. The teacher who asserts that the political world can be understood from a vicarious experience through the medium of a textbook or "student reader" reflects the belief that the "stuff" between the covers of a textbook can give meaning to reality and create a will to know.

Fortunately, there are evidences of change, in part as a response to growing student dissent, in part as a result of the increasing dis-

enchantment of the public supporters of education, and certainly as a result of the sensitivity and commitment of educators that schools can and should be more humane institutions. There are school systems on a continuum of size, political philosophy, economic prosperity, and caliber of leadership where students, teachers, and administrators are experimenting with new organizational, instructional, and staff utilization patterns, such as flexible scheduling, differentiated staffing, individualized instruction, nongraded schools, and an extended school year. Some of these emerging patterns have the potential for relaxing and expanding present concepts of school, as well as generating new definitions of what constitutes a school. To the extent that schools are willing to experiment with learning environments which place upon the students themselves more responsibility for learning, for seeking out, and for probing, then they are affecting a basic part of the complex educational process. These are most assuredly steps toward reshaping the school environment into one which has the capacity for contributing favorably to the total growth of children.

Yet what of the manifest teaching within these new structures? Those in control of the school curriculum in social studies have been reluctant to acknowledge the diverse cultural perspectives brought to the classroom by ethnic-group children. All too frequently, the social and political models presented in the classroom are inappropriate and thus counterproductive for many children. Any curriculum designs and instructional strategies that are to have credibility must include opportunities for children to modify, as well as generate, alternative social and political models that take into consideration their perspective of reality.

It follows that schooling in civic education is more usefully thought of as building on and modifying the perceptual conceptual life models learned by students in their unstructured experiences. The school may provide the laboratory for enriching experiences, and it may provide opportunities for developing the necessary skills for testing one's perceptual models of the world. It may give students the opportunity to relate their models to those developed by scholars. If such a confrontation is to occur, a basic ground rule operating in this model is that all perceptions are valid. And it is here, with the elicitation of a child's perceptions, that the teaching-learning process must begin.

It is expected that student-based models are to be filled with defects, be based on insufficient or imagined facts, be too narrow in scope, be impressionistic, and be characterized by inconsistencies. It is the responsibility of the teacher to help students refine and improve their models in line with facts and relationships that can be demonstrated through social analysis, in line with trends and tendencies, and in line with a constant set of defensible values. It is important, too, that in the process of examining and modifying models, the student may have his perspectives broadened. He may also acquire some of the skills of the social scientist, the historian, and the philosopher.[17]

Among the sundry experiences which the student brings to any learning situation are likely to be his experiences with political and social systems, of which the school is one of the most pervasive. As stated earlier, students may well learn more from their overt relations with the school social system than they will learn in formal classes on social studies. Teachers need not rely on selected historical events, but rather may direct students to generalize about power relationships in this social system. The here-and-now experiences and feelings of students become the beginning of learning in the classroom.

As described in the previous chapter, a child has both prescriptive and descriptive models from the world around him. An adequate mode for social studies education is one that is attentive to both the affective and scientific ways of knowing. If the social studies are to be seriously concerned with the development of "fully functioning individuals," then concern must extend not only to what man knows but to what he values and to the manner in which both knowledge and values are related to decision making. To attend to either one without the other is to treat man as though he were less than whole.

Central to this view for improving the political socialization of children through the school program is the need to provide students with opportunities and tools for thinking reflectively about their beliefs. They need also a disposition to examine traditional practices critically within an educational atmosphere conducive to reflective thinking.

A social studies program responsive to the needs of students must be one that is designed to facilitate closing the gap between schools

[17] Shirley H. Engle. Paper presented at Marin Conference, Marin Social Studies Project, October 1969.

and communities. If students are to suggest viable alternatives to both human and environmental destructiveness in our society, then they must have knowledge about the realities of political life as well as exposure to the cultural ideals of American democracy.

The teaching-learning process has traditionally been one of indoctrination which relied heavily upon theoretical and fanciful descriptions of the American system. Under these conditions, students have tended not to deal with partisanship or to discuss the important role of conflict in the political process. Rather, they have stressed ideal norms and have ignored the tougher and less pleasant realities of political life. It may be argued that by teaching so many myths, civic education has actually contributed to inaccurate views of existing power relationships in the community, and it has done this, for the most part, clearly within the expectations of the majority community. If learning experiences in the classroom are to approximate reality, then the classroom must become a microcosm of the total society.

If civic instruction is to be meaningful, it must provide students with opportunities for testing cognitive and affective models of the political world. Students will need data about how individuals participate in politics; how opinions and information are communicated; how decisions are made; how leadership is exercised; how conflicts are managed; how prejudices are institutionalized; as well as knowledge about the formal organization and structure of government. The place to start is not with idealized institutions and role models, for example, the friendly cop on the corner, but rather with the real models available to the student in the school. For example, how are regulations both formally and informally communicated in the school? Where is the power located in the school? What style of leadership is exercised? How are groups formed? How are these groups maintained and controlled? How are groups dissolved? How are conflicts resolved by members of the class or by the teacher? It is in searching for these kinds of questions, and others, that students gain insight into the sources of sociopolitical culture and the origins of their own attitudes. It is only when one becomes aware of one's own political values, and the consequences of acting on one's values, that real behavior alternatives become possible.

In the tradition of civic education, the social studies have given positive sanction to the notion of developing critical intelligence; but,

in reality, that advocacy has focused upon eliciting from students compliance behaviors that contributed to maintaining established institutional arrangements. Effective decision making in a pluralistic society requires a positive disposition and tolerance toward the critical examination of a multiplicity of alternative responses. Implicit in this position is a high tolerance for value ambiguity; and, perhaps now more than any time before, a responsive social studies curriculum is one developed around a major thrust of social activism. Where conflict, compromise, and consensus are all essential elements of this new curriculum, the social studies classroom must not continue to view the world through only a consensus model, but rather acknowledge and deal with conflict where it is found.

In addition, if the social studies are to generate a social activist curriculum, then new freedom to act must follow for the social studies teacher. Bureaucratic dehumanization weighs heavily not only upon students but upon their teachers as well. All too frequently the rules and procedures developed and legitimatized by school systems through the forces of specialized knowledge and hierarchical authority tend to be counterproductive to desired student-teacher relationships.

The rationale for decision making in the school has long been established in two basic sources: (a) tradition and (b) superiors in the hierarchical structure. In these models, solutions are relevant only when they are consistent with these sources. The resulting conformity in decision making affords a limited range of alternatives. Limited choices render both students and teachers almost totally ineffective in discovering innovative ways of solving problems. Novel solutions that would utilize resources in new ways are likely to be resisted, for they are speculative in nature, consequently threatening to established ways of behaving and allocating resources.

Typically, the introduction of information into the school system is by means of segregated units through specialists of one type or another, such as curriculum specialists, subject area specialists, school psychologists, and guidance counselors, resulting in those individuals with the greatest information (specialists) being separated from those with the greatest need for information (teachers and students). Segregating such groups prevents them from affecting the status quo to any great extent.

In addition to physical segregation, information flow is often cut

off because of the teachers' distrust of the intentions of supervisory personnel. Teachers often feel that seeking assistance from supervisors may be viewed by superiors as evidence of inability to cope with a situation. Consequently, they may feel that seeking assistance would serve only to jeopardize their chance of gaining access to the limited number of status positions, for a hierarchical reward system depends upon the organization's ability to find enough people who are willing to exchange their time for a chance at a small group of status positions.

From this perspective, teachers are being extrinsically rewarded for ineffectiveness and docility, and they are aware of this compromising behavior, which threatens their own personal integrity. The results of success, as defined by organizational goals and simultaneous repression of personal goals, are assessed by the criteria for self-actualization. It appears that there is an inverse relationship between one's behavior directed toward organizational goals and behaviors that would lead toward self-actualization.

Self-actualization, as used here, is defined by humanistic psychology. Maslow wrote:

> (Self-actualization) . . . is a different conception of the self. . . . it talks for the first time in centuries of an *essence*, of an *intrinsic* nature, of specieshood, of a kind of animal nature.[18]

The human being is conceived of as having:

> . . . an essence, a biological nature, membership in a species. . . . The "uncovering" therapies as helping the person to . . . discover his Identity, his Real Self, in a word, his own subjective biology, which he can *then* proceed to actualize, to "make himself," to "choose." [19]

Maslow further states:

> We speak then of a self, a kind of intrinsic nature which is very subtle, which is not necessarily conscious, which has to be sought for, and which has to be uncovered and then built upon, actualized, taught, educated.[20]

If teachers are to be continually evolving persons capable of innovative behavior, alternatives in the bureaucratic structure or the creation of new systems is essential.

[18] Abraham H. Maslow. "Some Educational Implications of the Humanistic Psychologies." *Harvard Educational Review* 38 (4): 687; Fall 1968.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 688.

[20] *Ibid.*

It is abundantly clear to the membership of this Commission that to alter the sociopolitical environment in which learning is to take place is a major step in improving the substantive nature of social studies instruction. The implications for curriculum revision suggested herein, and in a later chapter, are far-reaching. While these recommendations for change have been suggested before, if they should be implemented tomorrow, they would revolutionize the teaching of the social studies.

Chapter III

Curriculum for the Evolving Individual

EDUCATION IS becoming an increasingly difficult challenge, for we are charged with educating the individual for our contemporary and ever-changing society. Today education is, or should be, for the unknown as well as the known. It should provide individuals opportunities for experiences to gain those competencies necessary for controlling the myriad future possibilities of their lives. Indeed, today's education should aid the students to gain skills requisite for planning the futures they desire. In the past and at present, in many instances, the students have been and are fashioned in the image of adults by telling the students what they should know, how they should behave, and what they should believe, thus leaving them no alternatives.

A viable social studies curriculum should provide situations which assist students to articulate and investigate their own concerns, questions, and problems utilizing appropriate social science concepts and research tools. Such a curriculum should further enable students to broaden their horizons of concern relating to their world. Students who experience this social studies curriculum should have opportunities to consider their value frameworks. A meaningful social studies curriculum should provide students with the opportunities to formulate and challenge conclusions. In addition, students need situations in which they can apply their perceptions and their knowledge to the reality outside the school.

In deciding on an appropriate curricular model for social studies education, the rapidity of current change must be kept in mind. The model must allow for the introduction of new topics of concern as well as the elimination of topics no longer appropriate. The model must

allow for an emerging curriculum. The curriculum must not be static; it must be current with the evolutionary nature of society and respond to the varied and changing demands and needs of students. However, this does not mean that there should not be any constants in the social studies curriculum.

An Example

Before presenting any design with a detailed description of its parts, it might be of value to observe pupils engaged in the new social studies. These students in an upper elementary level are to investigate pollution. The teacher introduces the topic by presenting a film on pollution without any introduction. The sound has been shut off and the film runs silently. After the film finishes, the teacher asks students to share their reactions to what they saw. Some students do not respond for they lacked a focus. These children had been accustomed to previous teachers pointing them in the "right" directions for investigations. Other children react from an emotional basis by stating that they felt disgusted that people so prized profit that they were willing to ruin the environment. Other children react somewhat objectively by maintaining that pollution is a by-product of progress, and that to have progress some alteration of the environment is necessary.

The teacher appoints several children to act as recorders of the basic questions. Students are urged to volunteer other questions and other foci that might be related to the topic of pollution. As a question is raised, the teacher encourages the children to challenge the questioner as to its worth. "Just why should we investigate that question?" "What might be some of the potential answers which you could obtain if you followed through on that question?"

Students are asked to formulate three groups of seven persons each. Each group is charged to identify a key question of interest and to map out a plan for investigating the question. The challenge is to become familiar with a particular aspect of pollution and to suggest a way or ways in which the pollution problem can be diminished. The students are informed that they are responsible for deciding what materials to use and what strategies of investigation to employ. The teacher indicates the various materials, both written and audio-visual, present in the room. Students are instructed to discover what materials are available in the learning resource center in the school.

With this introduction, the students begin their investigations. This aspect of the lesson takes several days, and during this time the teacher serves as a consultant to the three student groups. Also, he provides a list of people in the school who might be consultants on this topic. Students are encouraged to find individuals in the community who also could provide assistance.

Throughout the investigation, the teacher-consultant reminds students to monitor their questions, to critique their methods used in processing information, and to evaluate their tentative conclusions. Also, the teacher reminds students that they need to identify their value bases with respect to pollution.

One class group decides to investigate the problem of water pollution and to approach it from a historical basis, identifying major events that have tended to contribute to water pollution. Each event is outlined and studied in detail, with individuals selecting events appealing to their interests. Students use past newspapers as well as government reports to gain some information.

A second group, also interested in water pollution, decides to probe the problem primarily from a geographic perspective. Students focus on a particular local region and attempt to plot on a map the distribution of major water bodies that have been polluted. Upon the identification of such areas, they begin to examine the reasons for the pollution and the sources of the pollution. These children are given time from class to make on-site visits and to photograph examples of water pollution. Some children in the group make sketches of the significant phenomena present in the locale under investigation. Upon returning to school, they draw a map. Major questions are identified dealing with the relationship between certain types of industry and water pollution. Time is provided for children to challenge each other's conclusions.

A third group, approaching the same topic from an economic emphasis, identifies key questions. With these questions or foci, it decides on the process of investigation. Part of the group arranges to interview some of the local business leaders and determine if these business leaders think a water pollution problem exists. This group later shares the results of its interviews with the class. Other children in the group, using textbooks and various publications from local industry, try to determine the economic reasons for current practices

which seem to be polluting the locale's water. Again, ample opportunity is provided for children to challenge each other's findings.

After the groups have been involved for several days in their individual investigations, the teacher arranges a class as a mock Senate committee hearing for sharing the results. In this situation, the teacher asks the children to role play the social scientists whom they represented in their group: historian, geographer, economist. The room furniture is arranged to approximate the appearance of a Senate hearing room. Some children are the audience; some are members of the Senate panel; and some are members of the reporting group.

During this mock committee hearing encounter, the major questions investigated are indicated, and conclusions are shared, challenged, modified, and recorded by all pupils in the audience. The entire session is audiotaped for later review. The results of the session are recorded and written into a report which is presented to all members of the class. The report identifies the key questions, findings, and recommendations for further action.

This example, at first glance, may not appear to be different from current practice. However, there is a major aspect that makes this classroom unique. The organizers for the lesson are not really the several subtopics of pollution but rather the learning situations planned by the teacher and the students. The situations allowed students to engage in decision making, to confront and challenge each other, and to be active in their processing of data. Students had several micro-situations and, upon completion of their investigations, experienced a macro-situation in the form of a mock committee hearing. Again, the committee hearing encounter was the prime organizer for getting students involved.

Curriculum Components

This example will become clearer when the curriculum model is presented. However, before discussing the model, it is necessary to define curriculum and to discuss the particular components of curriculum.

Neagley and Evans define curriculum as "all of the planned experiences provided by the school to assist pupils in attaining to the

best of their abilities the designated learning outcomes." [1] Curriculum as used in this document refers to a teaching plan possessing the potential to stimulate learning, and it is organized so as to assist pupils in achieving most optimally the goals and objectives designated by the school and students. What makes a curriculum unique is not so much the components in themselves but the ways in which they are organized.

Content

The first component, content, is perhaps what most people consider when contemplating curriculum. This relates to the "what" of schooling. Content specifically refers to all of the facts, precepts, concepts, generalizations, principles, and laws which are unique to a particular area of knowledge. Parker and Rubin have elaborated on the nature of content.

> When the school specialist speaks of "content" he refers to the compendium of information which comprises the learning material for a particular course or a given grade. The information may consist of a related body of facts, laws, theories, and generalizations, as in a traditional science course, or a description of events, as in a history course, or in any other predetermined arrangements of a particular segment of man's knowledge.[2]

Also, the various methodologies unique to the several disciplines are content. Indeed, methods of inquiry are crucial content, for they enable students to be active learners and allow them to obtain the greatest meaning from the knowledge encountered.

Learning Experiences

Learning experiences, as a curricular component, include all the educational activities under the management of the educator. Students can have experiences as individuals, in small groups, or in large groups. These experiences may include or exclude the teacher. Experiences may occur in any place in or outside the school. Learning experiences may provide opportunities for students to confront content, to be challenged by content, and to challenge content; to engage in decision making; and to engage in value clarification.

[1] Ross L. Neagley and N. Dean Evans. *Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. p. 39.

[2] J. Cecil Parker and Louis J. Rubin. *Process as Content: Curriculum Design and the Application of Knowledge.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1966. p. 1. Copyright 1966 by Rand McNally & Company. Reprinted by permission of Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Environments

The social studies curriculum does not take place in a vacuum. It occurs in a place, usually the classroom. The environment component refers to the place or space in which the content is experienced by pupils. The environment must not be taken for granted. Not all social studies activities need to occur within the classroom.

Social studies educators should be designers of educational space, for it is within this space, whether inside or outside the school, that learning occurs. Within the educational environment, students can postulate key questions, investigate issues, challenge ideas and values, and formulate and evaluate conclusions. In the environment, the curricular components of content and experiences are blended.

A Curriculum Model for Action

A meaningful social studies program should involve students in learning about their world. At the beginning of this chapter, it was emphasized that the social studies curriculum should assist students to articulate and investigate their own concerns, questions, and problems using appropriate social science concepts and research tools. The curriculum should allow for a broadening of student concerns, provide opportunities for identification and analysis of values, and furnish situations for formulating conclusions.

The following model attempts to do these things. The prime goal of this curriculum model is to provide situations, planned learning encounters, that confront students with aspects of their world. Such confrontation should allow for a closer and more scientific scrutiny of these aspects. In this model the planned learning encounter is the prime organizer. Within the planned learning encounter, students can interact with the resources, content, and experiences provided in the environments, and they can make use of particular instructional strategies.

One can have many encounters, but each encounter would have similar components. The variation would occur with regard to specifics. Content can have unlimited variation, while materials can be altered in myriad ways to cater to learning styles. Environments can be created in a multitude of learning spaces both inside and outside of the school. The encounters can be designed to meet the changing needs of the

students, and individual, small, and large group experiences can be planned. The educator can adjust the particular components of the planned learning encounter to cater to individual students or groups of students.

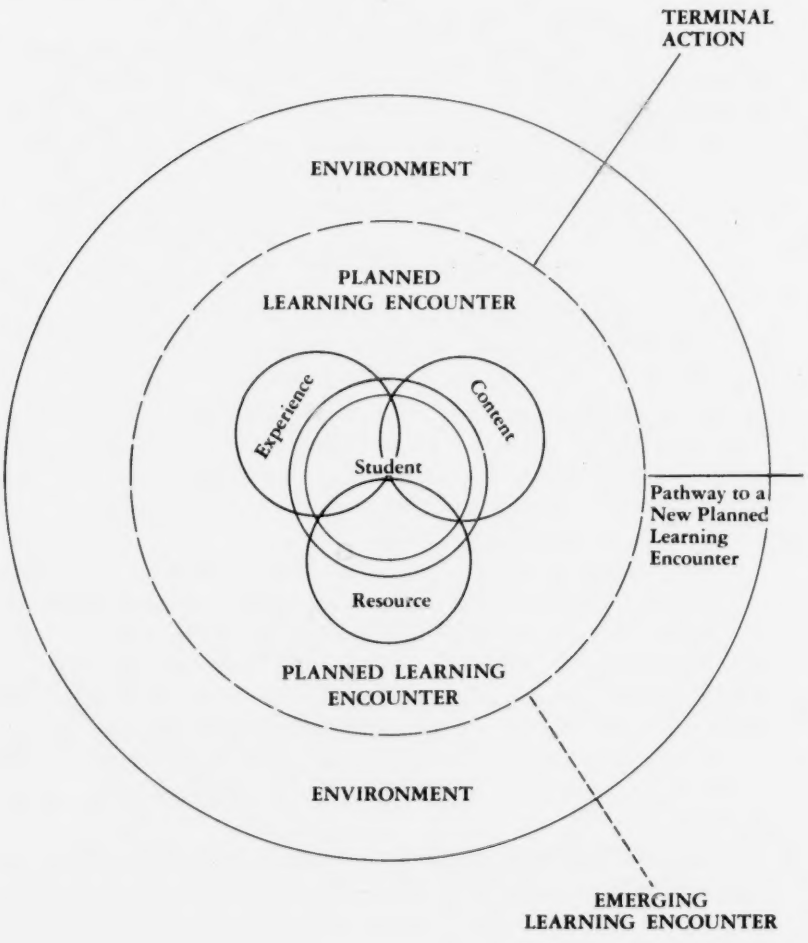

Diagram 1. A Planned Learning Encounter in Graphic Form

Diagram 1 presents a planned learning encounter in graphic form. This encounter illustrates how students will interact with particular curricular components. The student is central to the encounter. As one can observe, the encounter is planned to take place within a particular environment represented by the overall circle. Within this particular environment, the curriculum components of content and experience are planned. Notice that these components interact and that the learning encounter also interacts with the overall environment. This exchange is represented by the broken line.

Decisions made by the teacher and/or students with regard to one component are not made in ignorance of the other components. Decisions made regarding the type of content to stress in a particular encounter are related to the other components. For instance, in the example discussed at the beginning of the chapter, the decisions relating to the content of pollution were made with an awareness of and in consideration of the type of situation, the type of experience planned, and the type of resource persons to involve. The overlapping circles connote the relationships between and among these decisions.

A basic assumption of the model is that the planned learning encounter promises a high probability of producing learning and a high probability of involving students in investigations. Also, these encounters possess the potential of leading students into other encounters within or outside the school representing other areas of study. For each planned encounter, there will be certain identified goals and objectives. Of course, there also will be many learnings that cannot be listed in specific terms because the encounter itself should trigger some unique student responses. These unique responses are by-product learnings which we expect to happen, but we cannot be certain that they will happen to each individual in the planned encounter. Students will bring to each encounter their individual background, interests, and needs. They will personalize the numerous factors of the situation. The objectives which we list are really only the minimum learnings we wish all students to achieve. Hopefully, there will be many maximum learnings, but these are impossible to predict.

For each encounter, confrontation is planned—confrontation with ideas, materials, resource people, fellow students, with oneself. Process is an integral part of the learning plan. Students have to do something in the planned encounter; they have to work with material; they have

to engage in some process in an environment, laboratory, or central business district.

Not all planned encounters need to be of the same magnitude. One can have major and minor kinds of learning encounters. Mini-encounters, usually involving less time, can be used as advance organizers to prepare students for the major intellectual contact. Perhaps the major learning encounter is to organize content and experiences to aid students in confronting some of the views about war, conflict, and violence. Before experiencing the major encounter, students may need to acquire background data—for example, they may need to role play conflict situations in order to develop empathy for particular individuals who will be discussed in the major situation.

By mapping out several encounters, one can plan for the individualization of the curriculum. Not all students need to experience the same encounters. Some encounters could have the same objectives but differ in the dimensions of content presented, personnel who were used, types of materials used, length of time taken, and perhaps instructional strategy used. Other situations might deal with the same content, but differ in the types of support personnel, the types of environments, the length of time, and the teaching method. The model indicates that from each planned encounter there are three possible avenues of student action. The student can terminate his study; he can proceed to another planned encounter; or he can proceed to an emerging encounter, one which evolves as the student gains information and experience.

Strands

In the model, one can organize diverse strands or topics or processes common throughout the curriculum. These strands, providing continuity from one encounter to another, can be generated by teachers, principals, pupils, and outside agencies and can receive varying degrees of emphasis depending upon the situation and the content being stressed. One such strand could be the processes of the social sciences. The strand prevents the planned encounter from being merely a watered-down survey of the findings of a few social sciences. Rather, emphasis is upon the application of social science findings.

On occasion, social science research could be carried out to correct or clarify concepts of selected human events which students hold and can articulate at a particular time. All of the social sciences are

appropriately used in this social science strand. The strand is taught with full scientific integrity, for example, learning to ask questions as social scientists ask questions and learning to conduct research as social scientists conduct research. The strand can easily be incorporated into the experience component of the curriculum model.

Another strand which could be incorporated into numerous learning encounters would be that of values. This strand could assist students to identify, compare, and examine the warranty in logic and fact for the values they hold personally and the values held by various groups in society. In this strand, students would be helped by particular kinds of experiences within learning encounters to identify value conflict in their own personal value system and in the society. They would be assisted in achieving intelligent methodologies by means of which to use accepted canons of logic and fact in resolving such conflicts. Short of making final judgments, they would be afforded practice in using this system. With respect to this strand, elective courses in comparative social systems and philosophies could be offered. These courses would involve decisions with regard to the content curriculum component.

Still another strand would be one dealing with social problems, for it could be incorporated into the planning of numerous learning encounters. Students could confront social problems or situations necessitating some type of personal or public policy decision. Awareness of the important areas of social conflict, stagnation, or deterioration in the society would be a goal of this strand, but more important would be the involvement of students in the resolution of such problems. Students would experience encounters in which they could act intelligently and with full resort to all of the intellectual tools and resources involved in the resolution of such problems, including attention to the dynamics of social and political decision making. Undoubtedly, there are other strands which the social studies educator might wish to include, and the model provides for such additions.

The Class on Pollution—Revisited

The lesson on pollution which was presented earlier is now used to illustrate how the curriculum model might be used to explain curricular interaction in the classroom. Also, a model of the lesson appears in Diagram 2.

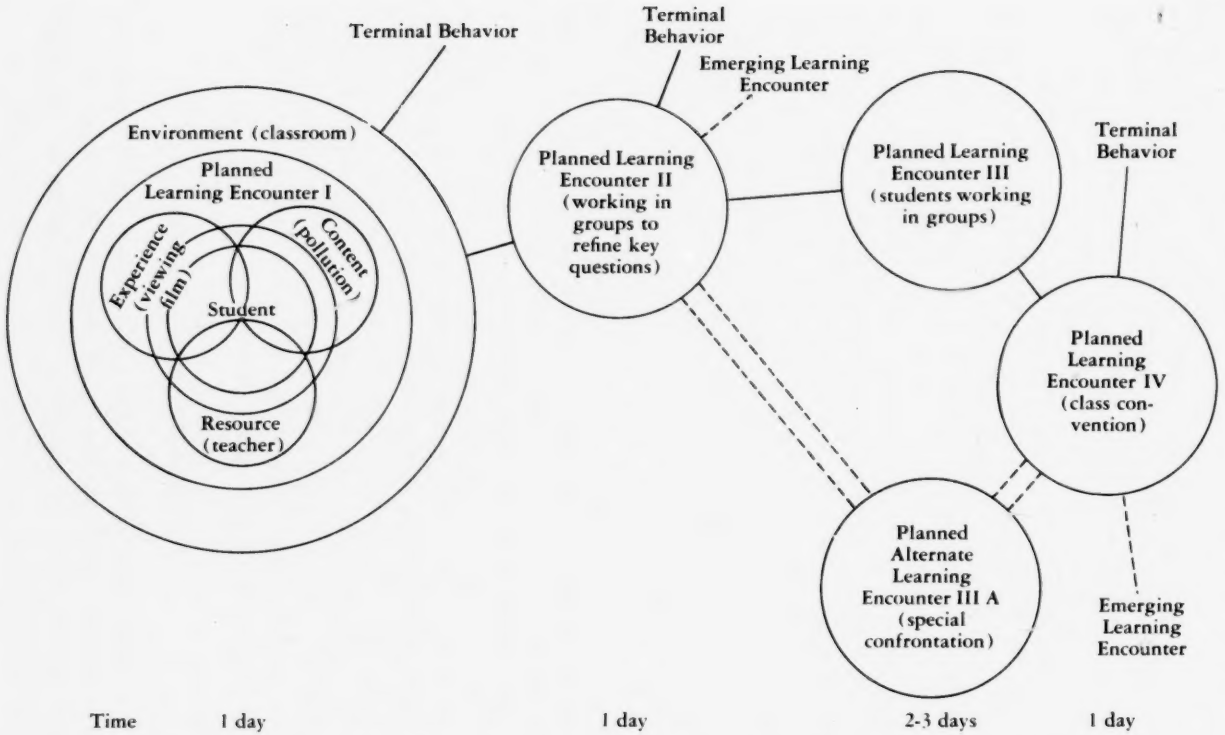

Diagram 2. A Model To Explain Curricular Interaction in the Classroom

The model shows four planned learning encounters, with one alternate learning encounter. Each learning encounter contains the several components, though these are graphically detailed only in the first encounter. Decision points relating to each component in relation with one or several other decision points are represented by the overlapping circles in the first planned learning encounter.

For each encounter, there are several options available to the student. He may terminate his study after the encounter or proceed to a learning encounter planned by or with the teacher. Finally, he might engage himself in an alternate learning encounter, or he might become involved in an emerging learning encounter. This latter type of encounter is one that is not planned before the student comes to class, but rather evolves out of his interests and skills and is developed either by him solely with the teacher only providing limited guidance or is developed cooperatively with the teacher. Such emerging learning encounters, as well as the alternate encounters, provide for a variation of curricular offerings.

Let us focus on the lesson discussed earlier. Note that the teacher introduced the lesson with the class viewing a film on pollution but without sound. This was the first encounter. In this first learning encounter, the content was pollution; the environment was the classroom; the experience was viewing and reacting to the film; and the teacher was the prime resource person.

From this initial encounter, the teacher-educator had planned a second encounter, with the prime experience to formulate groups to further refine key questions and to map out plans for investigating selected topics. Students were in control of their own learning; they had to identify their concerns, to formulate questions for investigation, and to determine the appropriate processes for gaining an understanding of the topic. The teacher allowed the students freedom as to what dimension of pollution they would investigate. The social sciences strand was evident in the model. Also, the value strand was incorporated from the first encounter. How did the students react affectively to the film? In this second encounter, the students also were responsible for choosing appropriate materials. The teacher provided only the total mass of materials; the students had to select. Once key questions were identified, methods of attack developed, and materials selected, the students proceeded to the third encounter of investigating the topic.

This third learning encounter, as can be observed from the model, involved several days. The first two encounters each involved only one day. The content for the third learning encounter was water pollution, but the students approached it from three perspectives—historical, geographical, and economic. However, the students varied their methods of attack, and these variations occurred within the experience curriculum component. Also, the content was different resulting from these different approaches. The teacher served as a prime resource to the three groups; however, other resource persons could have been used at times.

The environmental component differed for the three student groups. Some investigation occurred in the classroom, while other work was carried out in the community. One thing which needs emphasis here is that this model presented only the major encounters and the several curricular components involved. It did not indicate the sequence of activities within a particular encounter although such a sequence was implied. Of course, the sequence of activities became clear when we considered the several learning encounters.

In the model, there was a Planned Learning Encounter IIIA. This represented an alternative encounter that could be planned for students. It was related to the topic of pollution, but it was a special type of confrontation planned for or by students with particular needs, interests, or styles of learning. It was through such alternates and emerging learning encounters that the curricular experience could be individualized. There was no limit to the number of learning encounters one could plan and relate to the overall model. It was possible that one could have in one unit 20 major encounters with 20 alternative encounters. Certainly, students would not need to experience all of the same encounters. However, in an attempt for clearness, the model discussed here has only four major learning encounters with one alternative encounter. Note that the alternative encounter also feeds back into the mainstream of learning encounters. The broken line leading from II to IIIA just indicates that this was an alternative routing and not really required in order to participate in planned learning encounters.

In our example, Encounter IV was the mock Senate hearing. The content was water pollution as considered from three different disciplines, and the experience was the role playing of the Senate hearing. During this encounter, one can see that the three strands indicated

previously were present. There has been attention to the social sciences strand in gathering the data. The value strand has been engaged and is emphasized in this encounter, and the topic of pollution is certainly related to a social problem.

In this final encounter, students could strengthen their values and present and explain other values related to the topic.

Here students were allowed to report their tentative conclusions and to suggest possible generalizations which might explain the problem and people's actions. During this time, students confronted their own and classmates' conclusions. Here students discussed models provided by social scientists in rationalizing their own conclusions.

In these encounters, students were aware of the different curricular components and made decisions regarding them. Students who were engaged in the experience of defending their conclusions had to decide what content they would present in taking a valid position. They had to identify the type of situation which they were in and to determine the most appropriate means of presenting their cases to their classmates. They needed to identify what criteria to employ in judging whether their conclusions or those of others were indeed warranted. Students were aware of these components; they were aware of their responsibilities in the decision-making process, not only in planning their learning, but in presenting their conclusions.

This model provided the educator with a means for managing the variables of the curriculum. As previously stated, what makes one curriculum unique or different from another is not the variables but the specific dimensions of these variables chosen and organized with regard to particular situations. This model enabled the teacher to map out particular encounters and their related emphases and to obtain a clearer view of the scope, sequence, and balance within the social studies experience. The model enabled the teacher to organize a curriculum that facilitated students in becoming evolving individuals. Through planned learning encounters, students gained process skills, understandings, perceptions, and values from the social studies.

Rationale for a Curriculum Model for Action

This curriculum model provided a focus for curricular components. This model is planned to involve students in their own learning and to provide them confrontations requiring them to perform

rational decision making. These confrontations enable students to investigate concerns of importance to them and to social scientists. These confrontations require that students achieve tentative closure and take a position consistent with the data collected and their own value base.

The primary argument for using this model is student involvement. Throughout this document attention has been directed to the evolving individual. The student needs encounters which will foster his growth. One cannot fashion, via objectives, a person in a narrow mold. The student requires opportunities to grow, to become himself, and to alter his self-image. He needs experiences facilitating his growth. This model enables the teacher to provide those growth opportunities. It provides student support in the process of broadening understanding. This encounter curriculum enables teachers to place students in happenings which involve decision making about their world. Students will use values in reaching meaningful conclusions from the planned learning encounters.

Implications of the Model

This model places the teacher in a role of designer of learning encounters. It makes the teacher an educational manager. In this model, the teacher seldom assumes the role of a presenter. Rather it is the student who maps out his plan of investigation. He formulates questions, selects the appropriate materials, schedules his time, monitors his investigation, synthesizes his generalizations, evaluates his conclusions, and defends them in confrontations with his fellow students. The student is the focus of this activity in curriculum.

The teacher is accountable for introducing the specifics in this model. He is accountable for providing the planned learning encounters with the necessary support materials, for providing resource persons, for suggesting experiences, and for incorporating teaching strategies. Also, he is charged with allowing students to suggest their own learning encounters, resource persons, experiences, and materials. Teamwork is implied in this design.

Likewise, students have an accountability in this model. They share responsibility for their own learning. Teachers provide learning encounters, contents, materials, and time, but students do the actual learning. Teachers cannot dictate what students react to in the en-

counters nor the conclusions which they derive from them. In this model, students assume control of their own learning; therefore, they are accountable for their perceptions, understandings, and actions. It is possible that a student might arrive at value positions or conclusions or actions from the learning encounter which might displease the general society or even the teacher.

If teachers have not provided students with the opportunities to gain skill in the various methodologies of the social sciences, then they have not completed their responsibilities; however, if the students have gained these competencies, then students are on their own when it comes to their learning. Of course, the teacher still serves as a guide.

This Commission believes in the method of intelligence and in social responsibility. This model provides students with encounters in which they can use their decision-making skills to gain a mature and realistic understanding of man in his world. This model certainly provides opportunities for students to grow in social responsibility. Student responsibility for the major thrust of his learning is a powerful factor in meeting the goal of an autonomous learner.

Chapter IV

Issues in Evaluating the Evolving Individual

IT IS QUITE clear that the curriculum changes being called for in these chapters require that certain widely accepted attitudes and practices in student evaluation must undergo marked alteration. In the schools, all too frequently, evaluation practices have reflected the notion of education as a "pyramid, with all or most of the young age group attending school at the bottom and very few ever reaching the apex." [1] Much of the energy of teachers and other school personnel has been used in determining those students who were to be rejected and/or promoted and those who were to be classified and reclassified at numerous junctions along the arduous trek to becoming one of the schooled. The belief operating here is one of education as a fixed curriculum to be acquired in some sequential ordering from the simple to the difficult, with only a few students viewed as intellectually equipped to reach the summit.[2]

In addition to the consequences of these practices on the psyche of individual students, there is, from a broader societal perspective, the loss to this nation of its most valuable resource—the potentialities of its youth. Perhaps in an underdeveloped and relatively static society, selection and judgmental procedures are relevant for determining which students can take advantage of the few limited educational opportunities. However, in a highly developed society where an ever-expanding technology creates an increasing demand for an even more sophisticated

[1] Benjamin S. Bloom *et al. Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971. p. 6.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 6-9.

work force, such arbitrary selection procedures seem totally irrelevant.

In sharp contrast to the notion of schools as society's selection process for the socialization of individuals into particular life styles is the view that all children have talent to be developed and that the school's primary function is the development of the individual. On this point Bloom *et al.* write:

> . . . the central task of the school is to develop those characteristics in students which will enable them to live effectively in a complex society. The underlying assumption (under this view) is that talent can be developed by educational means, and that the major resources of the schools should be devoted to increasing the effectiveness of individuals rather than to predicting and selecting talent.[3]

If education is to serve youth and society, then the school must be charged with the responsibility for educating all children. In order that the school may contribute substantially to making "every kid a winner," [4] teachers and administrators must learn new ways of working.

In the past, evaluation, particularly in the social studies, has been summative in nature. *Summative evaluation* is evaluation which is designed for measuring learning outcomes attained over an entire course or a substantial portion of a course. For example, a departmental examination designed and administered for the purpose of determining promotion is summative evaluation. Students who experience this type of evaluation provide teachers with a measure of the teacher's effectiveness in designing learning experiences, but the experience may not serve to assist the student in the mastery of the knowledge and skills measured by the examination.

In contrast, *formative evaluation* is designed and administered at various stages of the learning process so that both students and teachers may determine the degree of mastery of a given set of learning tasks, and may determine those parts of the task which have not been mastered. Formative evaluation, then, provides feedback at various stages of learning. Consequently, formative evaluation holds considerable promise in that it provides both students and teachers with data critical to instructional and curriculum decision making.

Viewed in this perspective, evaluation may be thought of as

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 6.

[4] Leon M. Lessinger. *Every Kid a Winner: Accountability in Education.* New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1970.

consistent with goals of student autonomy and self-direction. When students are given adequate data about their progress, they may join their teachers in selecting appropriate learning tasks in terms of their goals, interests, and needs. Experiences of this type may serve to help students come to view evaluation as a tool for more effective decision making regarding their personal growth rather than viewing it as something to resist and fear. Evaluation, as herein suggested, would serve to reduce such destructive effects as these. An inadequately conceived evaluation program which is at best an arbitrary testing of students operates as a barrier to healthy student-teacher relationships. School policies on grading which have been designed in compliance with the concept of students performing along a normal curve are obviously inconsistent with any commitment to making all children successful at some level of proficiency.

It is accurate to say that at no other time in the history of education has so much attention been given to the development of the curriculum. Central to these efforts at curriculum improvement is the movement that has teachers and other educators specifying student learning outcomes. In the past, for whatever reasons, most objectives in the social studies have been ill-defined. A cursory examination of representative social studies curriculum guides published in the 1950's and early 1960's supported this. The objectives taken from *A Guide for Instruction in the Social Studies for the State of Minnesota,* 1955, provide an example:

- To develop the character and integrity of the student; to instill in his mind a desire to live a rich, ethical life, and to make his contribution to the common welfare
- To develop an intelligent patriotism as well as pride and faith in our heritage and the ideals of American democracy. While the rights of American citizens need to be taught, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy must be emphasized. There must be developed a respect for the dignity and worth of each individual regardless of his race, religion, or socio-economic status
- To develop in the student an inquiring mind--a mind that seeks the truth
- To develop good mental health in the student and to establish wholesome mental and emotional attitudes and habits
- To develop the understandings necessary for intelligent citizenship; to understand the meaning of culture and the character of human nature; to acquire sufficient background to become an informed citizen who can actually

participate in solving social, economic, and political problems at all levels, local, state, national, and international

- To develop a desire for better civic behavior; a willingness to cooperate with others in a democratic way; and an allegiance to the democratic way of life

- To develop ability to observe, analyze, and form well-considered judgments about government and public affairs; to learn sound methods of investigation, to acquire ability to evaluate information, and to think critically and constructively about social, economic, and political issues of the day; to see clearly the role that individuals and organized groups can play in solving the problems of democracy.[5]

With the increasing emphasis upon accountability in the schools, teachers can no longer avoid evaluation in the social studies by simply acquiescing because of the difficulty of the required task. No one is suggesting that the task is an easy one, for quite the contrary is true. Rather, what is being suggested is that concentrated efforts are needed to bring evaluation procedures in line with the gains which have been made in teaching and learning in the social studies during the past decade. There is no evading the issue; for the more complex and sophisticated the learning task is, the more difficult it is to evaluate it.

Formative evaluation procedures offer much hope, for changes in the level of specificity at which social studies instructional objectives are expressed are essential to efforts at improving evaluation in the social studies. Although resisted by some, the utility of behavioral objectives as a tool for analyzing and developing instructional programs of basic skills has been demonstrated.

Paralleling the need for increased specificity in the writing of objectives in the social studies is the need for a greater comprehensiveness in the range or level of thinking and feeling processes required of students. A random selection of teacher-prepared, evaluative techniques reveals that a majority of the procedures developed require: (a) low-level thinking operations by students and (b) essentially no attention to evaluating the feeling or emotional dimensions of decision making. If the goal in social studies is to contribute substantially to developing in students a full range of thinking and feeling processes, such as classifying, hypothesizing, and valuing, then the task becomes a more arduous one.

[5] *A Guide for Instruction in the Social Studies for the State of Minnesota.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 17. St. Paul: State of Minnesota Department of Education, 1955. 453 pp.

UNIT EVALUATION: POLITICAL SYSTEMS

Behavioral	*Cognitive*									*Affective*			*Evaluative*		
Substantive and Procedural (Content, Method, Experience)	Making distinctions	Classifying and defining information	Identifying and defining problems	Forming hypotheses	Exploring logical consequences	Collecting and analyzing data	Testing out ideas	Making and applying generalizations		Being objective	Showing interest and involvement	Identifying value consistencies	Identifying issues	Taking positions	Clarifying and grounding positions
1.0 The Concept of Political System															
2.0 A Political System															
2.1 Locus of Power (one, few, many)															
2.2 Legitimacy of Government															
2.3 Selection of Leaders															
2.4 Citizen Participation															
3.0 Comparative Political Systems															
3.1 System Maintenance															
3.2 Techniques of Behavioral Compliance															
3.3 Subsystem Autonomy															
3.4 Justice															

Diagram 3. Table of Specifications

Simplistically stated, the task is one of moving away from evaluation based on eliciting from students a limited range of thinking to evaluation based on more sophisticated thinking processes. If the objective is to determine whether a student can use data to make logically founded inferences, then the task is to design evaluation techniques requiring this specific behavior. If students are to be judged on their skill at hypothesizing, then learning tasks must be designed which require them to hypothesize. Thus, teachers and curriculum developers need a conceptual scheme which provides teachers and curriculum developers with an approach that allows for the writing of behavioral objectives in both substantive (content) and process (behavioral) realms.

The realization that objectives may be developed at various levels of abstraction has led classroom teachers to develop classroom objectives at differing levels consistent with some taxonomical scheme. The *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*[6] developed by Bloom and others is known to classroom teachers. It has been instrumental in moving classroom instruction which elicits from students low-level cognitive operations of recall and comprehension to higher order thinking processes: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. This process has served significantly to upgrade social studies instruction where it has been practiced by teachers.

In addition to improving the quality of objectives being written, taxonomies have offered teachers a valuable tool for analyzing the level of thinking being required in their questioning sequences as well as aiding teachers in diagnosing or pretesting for learning readiness for specific tasks. For example, Diagram 3 illustrates a two-dimensional matrix showing content along one axis and behaviors or performance along the other axis in a taxonomical arrangement.[7] These objectives reflect the concern that learning objectives in the social studies draw their substance from both process and content.

A more detailed example of a two-dimensional matrix follows. Here only a single column of one dimension of the matrix is developed

[6] Benjamin S. Bloom and D. R. Krathwohl. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain.* New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956.

[7] Florida Department of Education Social Studies Project developed under contract with Florida State University, Tallahassee, 1971. (In unpublished form.)

in detail. In using such a matrix, the teacher checks off the behaviors which a student demonstrates in each cell of the matrix. This provides a record of student behavior rather than just an index for promotion.

The two-dimensional matrix provides the teacher a means for developing objectives with consideration for both content and process. The following sample items illustrate in detail one dimension of content through several process levels. As can be observed, the student deals with the content of enforcing society's rules while progressing from making basic distinctions to the testing of ideas.

Process

Substantive Content: Enforcing Societies' Rules

Behaviors

Making Distinctions. Given five examples of political processes, the student will identify those three which describe techniques used to enforce the rules of the political system.

Demonstrating Conceptual Understanding. Given a list of ten ideas, institutions, values, and processes, and a list of three concepts, the student will match correctly with the appropriate concept the three which relate directly to "rule," the three which relate directly to "enforcing rules," the three which relate directly to "compliance with rules," and the one which is an irrelevant distractor ("others").

Identifying Problems. Given a graph depicting the proportion of people in each of three countries whose obedience to the law is based on (a) respect and (b) fear, and given a chart comparing the crime rate in each of the countries over a five-year period, the student will select, from a list of four alternatives, the one statement which clearly describes a problem described by the data.

Stating Problems. Given a graph depicting the proportion of people in each of three countries whose obedience to the law is based on (a) respect and (b) fear, and given a chart comparing the crime rate in each of the countries over a period of five years, the student will state, in his own words, a problem reflected in the data.

Forming a Hypothesis. Given a graph depicting the proportion of people in each of three countries whose obedience to the law is based on (a) respect and (b) fear, and given a chart comparing the crime rate in each of the countries over a five-year period, the student will form a hypothesis, in his own words, about a relationship between respect for laws and obedience.

Substantive Content: Enforcing Societies' Rules

Behaviors

Exploring Consequences. Given a graph depicting the proportion of people in each of three countries whose obedience to the law is based on (a) respect and (b) fear, and given a chart comparing the crime rate in each of the countries over a five-year period, the student will select the most likely consequence following a type of rule enforcement, from a list of four possible consequences.

Collecting Data. Given a list of six statements about or titles of published articles, the student will select the four which describe a source of information that could be directly applicable to the study of the topic "Rule Enforcement."

Analyzing Data. Given a chart comparing the crime rate in each of three countries over a five-year period, the student will determine the trends in crime rate from the data and will extend the data to the next year for all three countries, based upon the trend in each country.

Testing Our Ideas. Given a hypothesis about government regulation of political, economic, and social life, and a list of four statements which either support or do not support the hypothesis, the student will identify those statements which *support* the hypothesis and those which *do not support* the hypothesis.

Making a Generalization. Given three short case studies about how three different political systems enforce their rules, the student will write, in his own words, a generalization which identifies the similar characteristics of all three countries' rule enforcement.

Applying a Generalization. Given a generalization about rule enforcement in a totalitarian society and a case study involving the rule of a dictator, the student will apply the generalization to the explanation of the dictator's actions by selecting the one best explanation from a list of four possible explanations.

Identifying Issues. After reading a case study about the actions of a dictator, the student will select the one best statement of an issue of rule enforcement described in the case from a list of four alternative issues.

Taking a Defensible Position. After reading a case study about the actions of a dictator, the student will state, in his own words, a defensible position (one he can give at least one reason for) about the actions of the dictator.

Grounding Positions. Given a value position about the enforcement of a society's rules, the student will, from a list of five statements, choose the two which support the position, the two which attack the position, and the one which has no bearing on the position.

When classroom teachers have gained proficiency in stating student outcomes, tables of specification can be readily used. A table of specification as used here is a two-dimensional matrix of content and behaviors. Tables may be developed for small segments of instruction, for example, an individualized learning contract, or for a large segment of learning outcomes, for example, a total school program. With the use of tables of specification, classroom teachers can readily assess the degree to which the objectives they have developed are comprehensive, that is, provide for learning experiences that require a full range of learning processes. The behavioral dimension is represented on the horizontal axis, and the substantive or content dimension is on the vertical axis.

A learning sequence, whether an entire course or a single unit of study, may contain tables of specifications which allow teachers to classify learning objectives into the numerous cells. In addition, the use of tables of specifications helps teachers productively direct their efforts toward generating objectives for all or selected cells. A classification of objectives into appropriate cells enables teachers to judge the degree of comprehensiveness of objectives developed. Having developed measurable objectives judged appropriate for all or selected cells, teachers may follow with the writing of test items tied directly to the objectives so that student performances may be assessed.

Implicit in the utilization of behavioral objectives and tables of specification is the notion that criterion-referenced measurement is preferred to norm-referenced, standardized measures. With criterion-referenced measures, students are evaluated on predetermined objectives, that is, assessment is based on whether or not a preestablished criterion has been achieved by the student.

From the perspective of the behavioralist, much progress has been made with the advent of recent developments in evaluative techniques and strategies. A substantial part of this progress has been made under the assumption that learning can be dichotomized into the cognitive and affective domains. This assumption, when operationalized in the schools, has resulted in the development of objectives and the measurement of student growth almost exclusively in the so-defined "cognitive processes." Any publication seeking to deal with evaluation in the social studies which does not acknowledge the limitation of the behavioristic approach to teaching and learning would be seriously

remiss. Although the behavioristic approach to teaching and learning has provided in some cases greater specificity in learning objectives in the social studies, this is a field notoriously vague in its statements of goals and objectives; hence, considerable caution must be exercised so that we do not simply trade one poor practice for newer and more serious ones.

Educators have expended staggering amounts of energy in generating endless quantities of objectives. Frequently, the writing of objectives has degenerated from a means of improving instruction into an end in itself. In response to the pressures for greater accountability in the schools, educators with a religious-like zeal have specified measured behaviors. In many instances, their efforts may have contributed to perpetuating a closed system of learning; for, if a child's formal learning in school is to be no more than that which teachers and curriculum specialists can predetermine, express behaviorally, and measure objectively, their opportunities for developing divergency of thought are severely restricted. If, in the utilization of the behavioral objectives approach, or any approach for that matter, a teacher expects that all student behaviors will be defined in advance, then he has allowed himself to be placed in a straitjacket which purports that learning is reducible to searching for the right answer which can be predetermined by the teacher or someone else designated with such responsibility.

Perhaps this notion of teaching and learning is acceptable in a relatively static society where most of the knowledge a person requires in order to operate successfully is already known by the adults of the society.

Yet the infinitely complex and ever-changing world in which we live cannot be maintained by individuals educated through such a limited process.

The human condition in these immensely intricate times requires that persons be capable of responding in many divergent modes. Even if this were not so, the rapidity of change with its demands that one continually experiment with new behaviors renders ridiculous any attempt to forecast the right behaviors for all the tomorrows of all children.

In attempting to bring increased efficiency to education, we can ill afford to assume that a student's most significant insights can always be objectively measured and that in exercising the ritual of scientism

we can explain the meaning of existence. The totality of humanism does not lend itself to definitive quantification.

Intelligent behavior is not produced through repetitious exercises which elicit right answers, but rather intelligent behavior is produced by successful experiences in decision making which require the full range of the thinking and feeling processes. Any curricular and instructional endeavor that has as its goal greater personal relevancy must treat the feelings or emotional aspects of the human experience. Attempts at communication solely on a rational basis are bound for failure when the issues involved have personal relevancy for the student. To deny the affective dimension in the curriculum is to create an "unreal world" curriculum which denies the legitimacy of feelings. This denial can very well result in social impotency in students. Apart from the personal degradation, our society can ill afford generations of young people who share feelings of isolation and alienation. These feelings manifest themselves in students as a sense of powerlessness to gain and maintain control over their lives and to deal with the critical ills of society.

If the social studies are to do more than expose an action-oriented curriculum, then concerted efforts must be directed toward designing learning opportunities that acknowledge students in a holistic sense. Most typically the response from social studies educators has been to speak in the affirmative about the significance of curricula which respond to the needs of students. As we continue to direct our energies toward designing curricula and evaluative measures in the so-called cognitive areas, teaching, learning, and evaluating which reflect a commitment to educating the whole man remain the most significant challenges to the social studies.

Chapter V

Implications for Continuing Teacher Education

WHAT DO THE positions taken in this document imply for teacher education? If the type of citizen needed today is a dynamic, self-functioning individual, do we in social studies education have to alter our teacher education programs? What are to be the roles of the teacher? Teacher educators should be the initiators of innovative programs and teaching at the colleges and universities. If social studies educators fail to be innovative, then education students are not likely to meet successfully the challenge of teaching the needed social studies. Teacher educators need to develop programs that will enable students of education to assume the new roles of the teacher. We need a clear understanding of these new roles.

New Concept of the Teacher

A new concept of the teacher is demanded. This teacher is to facilitate the development of productive intellectual behaviors in individuals. As Hunkins asked:

> What should the teacher do? What should he be? The teacher needs to act as mediator when students are gaining insights in challenging their fellow classmates' thinking. The teacher needs to be a motivator. He needs to create in students a desire to learn of their world in such a way that this desire is lifelong. The teacher needs to be an exemplar himself of the effective student.[1]

Today, there appear to be more specialization and professionalism

[1] Francis P. Hunkins. *Texas Journal of Secondary Education.* University of Texas, Austin, 1968. p. 18.

with regard to teachers in general and social studies teachers in particular. Social studies teachers should be broadly educated and competent not only in professional education but in their social science disciplines as well. Specialization implies that the social studies teacher will become a member of a team responsible for educating the total child.

A major change in the teacher's role is from that of an information source and presenter to that of guide and manager of learning experiences. No longer can the teacher of social studies assume "all-knowing" wisdom. It is doubtful that the teacher ever really possessed such wisdom, but he often did present information in such a manner as to convey this impression to his students. Today, the teacher should portray his role to students as one of assisting them in dealing with social studies learning. The teacher assumes the catalyst role. He helps things to happen. He participates, but he does not dominate. The stress is on involving students in meaningful interaction with social science content and fellow students. The teacher becomes involved, but the students are the prime performers.

This role for the social studies teacher carries certain demands. A primary demand is creativity in developing means by which to stimulate students' minds regarding social studies. The teacher must assume responsibility not only for teaching but for curriculum planning and scholarship. This educator also needs to maintain his understanding of the field and be abreast of new developments. New projects, materials, and strategies should be part of the professional knowledge of the social studies teacher.

For the teacher to assume these new roles, he needs contact with reality and commitment to improving the quality of life. Today's social studies teacher requires daring—daring to be right as well as wrong, and daring to be different as well as conforming. Too often, teachers of social studies have played it safe and always used the "surefire" approach: Don't endanger your security by attempting something that might fail.

This type of attitude needs adjustment. Certainly, no progress will be achieved in social studies if we stay only with methods and subjects that have worked in the past. Innovation always requires educators to run risks; however, in recognizing failures that occur, progress can be made in establishing sound, innovative ideas.

Toward a More Humane Teacher Education

If teachers are to be exemplars of social science processes and if they are to allow for pupil individuality, then they need to experience preparation programs which stress process and focus on the uniqueness of individuals. If we want humane education in our schools, students of education need to experience humane education in their professional preparation.

Personnel

For a humane teacher education program to exist, one needs personnel committed to the ideal of humane education. This means that persons at all levels of involvement in the preparation of teachers must be "open" people. They must be accepting and able to work with a variety of students in myriad situations. Also, they must be able to work with a variety of persons in the schools.

Educators, college professors, public school personnel, and state education personnel will need to consider themselves as members of a team. The day of "doing your own thing" without consideration for the total program is passing. All persons in the system should be exemplars of the ideals and methods they advocate. This team should provide education students with situations in which they can observe demonstration teaching, engage in inquiry sessions, conduct field studies, participate in simulations, and be involved in a host of other activities.

The personnel involved in a humane teacher education program should be committed to a program with a strong reality base. The program should include ethical concerns as well as pedagogical concerns. The reality base will require school personnel to assume an increasing role in teacher preparation. Education professors will be required to work more closely with teachers in the field.

Of course, such a program will require a more careful selection of students who enter teacher preparation. This does not mean just raising the grade-point average for admission, for the 4.0 student does not necessarily make the best teacher. Neither should one assume that the marginal student is most effective in teaching. Other characteristics may be appropriate for selecting these people; for instance, nondirectiveness, openness, empathy.

Instruction

The instructional procedures used in teacher education should reflect humaneness in their approaches. The procedures should be adjusted to the needs, interests, and abilities of the students in the program, and they should consider the learning styles and personalities of the students. For example, some education students may learn most effectively by interaction with their peers and by engaging in micro-teaching. Others learn most effectively by engaging in solitary contemplation before using a strategy in the classroom. All students need involvement with public school teachers and pupils. The potential of university students working as instructional aides, as interns, and as neophyte teachers in the schools is currently being explored.

A humanistic program for educating social studies teachers should allow students opportunities to know themselves better as people. There should be numerous opportunities in the education program for students to gain these insights. Both time and opportunity must be provided for students to visit with advisors and instructors.

Young people must become involved in real situations under professional guidance in order to gain a true perspective of their areas of need. Likewise, they must have continuing contact with faculty members who may provide the expert assistance required for satisfaction of needs.

In teacher preparation, the real criterion of success is effective teaching in the classroom. Even more important is the knowledge on the part of the neophyte teacher that he is becoming an effective teacher. This contributes to the growth of his self-concept, and it is crucial to a humane teacher education program. Under these conditions, grades are meaningless, since a humane teacher education program would operate on a pass-fail basis. This does not mean that such a program will not have precise diagnostic measures. Evaluation is present, but it is used as feedback to guide the student's progress in the program. An "A" for a student means nothing without qualifying remarks. With the stress on the diagnostic statements and qualifying remarks, there is no need for the "A" classification.

By developing and using a dossier of the student, both teacher educators and employers will be able to determine the competency of the prospective teacher. Also, they will know something of the personality of the individual. They will gain information which would

state how the new teacher works with certain types of pupils. The neophyte's teaching style would be revealed. Some student teachers will be excellent at demonstration, while others' forte will be in conducting inquiry sessions. Of course, most will be able to function in a variety of teaching styles.

Accepting a humane teacher education program in most cases requires of educators rethinking preparation programs. No longer can we be satisfied with having students take a sequence of five methods courses and a quarter or semester of student teaching. Education is too complex for such limited preparation. There is a need for highly innovative programs that will allow students of education to gain competencies not only in methodology but in comprehending and managing the total educational scene.

Need for Performance-Based Programs

Students of education require opportunities to put into practice what they have learned in their professional work. Students of social studies need situations in which they can experiment with new ideas. It is one thing to claim that a particular activity will provide students with an understanding of a river basin, but it is another to allow an education intern the opportunity to ascertain for himself the effectiveness of a particular instructional strategy for developing this understanding. While one can discuss how to involve students effectively in classroom simulations, students need actually to guide a class in such an activity. By so doing, they will develop expertise in coordinating the content, the activities, the grouping strategies, and the scheduling which is needed during a class period.

A note of caution should be added with regard to performance-based programs in social studies. There is not at present, nor is there likely to be, any one way or even three best ways to teach social studies. If we accept students as having unique characteristics and teachers as individuals, we must conclude that effective teaching of social studies is not going to fit any one single model. Much variation will exist under the rubric of effective social studies teaching. Surely, if social studies educators accept the new interpretation of their roles as primarily facilitators of learning opportunities, they will be less concerned with presenting information and more concerned with how students are reacting intellectually and emotionally to what they have planned.

Teacher Education Program, Field Oriented—TEP/FO

Numerous programs are being developed in response to the need for performance-based education. One such program is the Teacher Education Program, Field Oriented, at the University of Washington. The TEP/FO program at the university has several component parts. This discussion will refer to the elementary clinic program.

The TEP/FO program deals with all areas of the elementary school and secondary school. This discussion focuses on the elementary social studies dimension. The program has a core of basic values evidencing a concern for education similar to what has been outlined in this and previous chapters.

1. A belief in the dignity and moral worth of the individual regardless of race, color, creed, caste, class, talent, ability, or sex
2. A belief in a basic morality
3. A belief in opportunity and freedom for the individual's greatest possible self-fulfillment and the pursuit of happiness, with the corollary responsibilities necessary in a democratic society
4. Faith in the potentiality of human intelligence and the use of reason based on knowledge and tempered with a feeling of kinship with others
5. Esteem and respect for individuality, creativity, and aesthetics
6. A belief that human beings have the capacity to govern themselves wisely to the end of the greatest good for all.[2]

In addition to the core of basic values, some general objectives have been developed for the program.

1. Participants will acquire and demonstrate knowledge of important physical, psychological, social, and emotional characteristics of children at various stages of growth and development.
2. Participants will acquire and demonstrate their knowledge of the important aspects of learning and learning processes.
3. Participants will acquire and demonstrate (a) knowledge of the concepts and structure basic to art, social studies, language, reading, science, and mathematics; and (b) skills in the instruction of children as evidenced by identifying objectives, diagnosing, prescribing, selecting, planning, organizing and using strategies, reinforcing, and evaluating.
4. Participants will acquire and demonstrate knowledge of the organization, procedure, personnel, facilities, and community relationships of selected public elementary schools.
5. Participants will realize the importance of being an educator in the

[2] College of Education, University of Washington document, April 21, 1970.

broad sense of being involved in planning, implementing, evaluating, and disseminating educational programs within the educational system.

6. Participants will develop and demonstrate a positive concept of self in relation to the environment in which they will be expected to work, that is, their place in the ecosystem.

7. Participants will develop and demonstrate their own unique teaching style which incorporates those characteristics and skills considered through criticism of experiences and research to be desirable for all teachers.[3]

Each of the general objectives was expanded into numerous behavioral objectives. These behavioral objectives were developed for each course segment of the program. Professors involved in the program have developed various criteria related to the learners' behaviors or learners' products resulting from instructional experiences. For example, in the third general objective, it is stated that the participants will acquire and demonstrate knowledge of and skills in the instruction of children. If we focus just on the acquiring of skills in the instruction of children, there are several behavioral objectives which can be formulated. Some sample objectives from the program are:

1. Participants, when given a particular group of pupils, will be able to use a cognitive map in planning a lesson for these children. The participants must use this cognitive map and prepare a 30-minute lesson that is to be taught in the field classroom. Success of the planning will be judged by how closely the lesson, as taught, approaches the lesson as planned via the cognitive map.

2. Participants will be able to teach a 10-minute minilesson using the Michaelis integrative mode of inquiry. They will formulate questions that will direct students to engage in investigations proceeding through the various stages of the method. Success will be judged by how many of the children work with information at each stage of the Michaelis strategy.

3. Participants, in viewing a video tape of their teaching, will be able to employ the Teacher-Pupil Question Inventory and record correctly the types of questions asked by themselves and their pupils. Success will be determined by how closely their ranking of the questions approaches that of a judge experienced in the coding of questions.

[3] College of Education, University of Washington document, April 1970.

Participants in the program are also encouraged to develop objectives for themselves and to determine their own success levels.

Students involve themselves in the TEP/FO-Clinic Elementary for a period of one year. For two quarters, they divide their time between a university clinic and a school classroom or classrooms. In their third quarter of the program, the interns are full time in the school classroom. They receive temporary state certification which allows them to assume responsibility for a total class under the guidance of a cooperating teacher.

During the two quarters in which the interns divide their time between the university and school, they have numerous opportunities to meld theory and practice. Many clinic activities develop in response to situations emanating in the public school classrooms. Process receives much attention and may be considered in the campus clinic through small group discussions or by experimentation in the public school classroom. The interns might deal with questions as to how to involve students meaningfully in social studies activities so as to de-emphasize reading.

These small groups might feed information into the total clinic group for further discussion. A clinical professor is available for each curricular area, and he might lead a discussion on the major concerns of the interns or present a particular strategy with the interns role playing students. Also, interns have opportunities in the clinic to microteach on video tape; this provides a means for analysis of their skills in using a particular strategy.

After experiencing clinical activities dealing with particular strategies, interns are encouraged to attempt the strategies in their public school classrooms. They first might discuss their plans with the field associate who has the major responsibility for their classroom. Interns are encouraged to use either audio or video tape to record their teaching for self-diagnosis. Sometimes these tapes are analyzed by the clinical professor and the student.

In the clinic, interns have opportunities to analyze new social studies materials and projects. Students have numerous opportunities to interact with faculty members and with fellow interns. Also, they have a major voice in planning the topics and experiences for the social studies sequence. This planning is done after the interns have been in the field for about a month observing various classrooms. This

allows time for identifying their areas of need and for clarifying their interests.

Interns also have opportunities to visit various community agencies. The stress is for interns to realize that a school is not just a building in a specific location where children spend a required amount of time. In its broader context, school is any place where learning takes place. Allowing interns some freedom in their schedules to visit other places in the communities, such as museums and government agencies, provides them with a growing consciousness of the broader concept of school.

Resource people are used in the program to provide the interns with a comprehensive understanding of the school. Attorneys for the public schools explain the legal responsibilities of the schools. Community representatives provide input for consideration. Interns interact with minority group members to get their views regarding the school. This use of resource persons adds relevance to the professional preparation of the interns.

The interns' experiences in the clinic are designed to support the field experiences. This two-pronged approach allows the interns not only to gain an understanding of teaching but to begin to comprehend the total educational system. Such a total view helps the interns to develop as educators capable of assuming many new roles.

New Roles in the Program

In this program, the professor assumes a broader role; he is responsible for providing clinical experiences in which interns can discuss and solve problems. Also, he is responsible for supervising these interns in the field to ascertain that there is a meaningful blend of field and clinical experiences. He assists his field associates, the teachers in the classroom responsible for the full-time supervision of the interns. He works with the field associates on problems and new developments in social studies education. In addition, the clinical professor in social studies is responsible for working in a team relationship with other clinical professors. This teaming affords a meaningful meld of experiences for the interns. Those common pedagogical elements such as planning and writing objectives are treated in general clinical sessions. Once introduced, common concerns then can be discussed in relation to the various specific subject areas, if the need exists.

The field coordinator is another member of the team. This person, working for both the school district and the university, serves to keep the channels of communication open between the clinical professors and the field associates. This coordinator works with the program director in planning field trips and various meetings with the staff and the interns.

Summary of the Major Strengths

To date, this program is too new to offer any hard data as to its effectiveness. However, those involved in its development, implementation, and maintenance do believe that it has certain strengths to recommend its continuance. First, the program provides the participants with an in-depth experience in the real school environment. Second, the program allows the student interns to gain the theoretical background needed to support new strategies, and allows them to try out these strategies in a clinical environment at the university. In the clinic, the interns can practice some of the new strategies in microteaching situations or can engage in debriefing sessions with clinic professors to analyze their field teaching, which may have been put on video tape. Third, the program provides an effective link between the theoretical and the practical. Fourth, the program fosters a meaningful cooperation between school and college faculties. Such cooperation is most urgently needed if education programs are to be productive in guiding individuals to become mature and qualified professionals. Finally, a major strength of the program has been that professors of education are taking the time to rethink the basic goals of the teacher education program and to devise means of incorporating into the program the most current thinking regarding the education of teachers.

Other professors in the program might generate different lists of strengths. However, all would agree that this program is going in a direction that is responsive to the needs and demands of those entering the profession.

Need for Viable In-Service Programs

We have discussed a program for preservice education; however, we should not overlook teachers in the field. If social studies teachers are to meet the continuing challenge of the times, they must have

opportunities to update their knowledge and skills. Such updating does not mean taking one or two courses every three years to move up the salary schedule.

Educators spend a great deal of time considering curricula for the students. Often large sums of money are allocated for new materials. Yet too few schools follow up their purchases of new materials with in-service programs to enable teachers to use the new materials effectively. Frequently, a school will spend $40,000 for social studies materials and then not spend $1,000 to assure teacher competence in the use of the materials. This kind of myopic and wasteful practice must be corrected. Schools need to plan curricula for staff development as well as curricula for their students.

In-service education should be a continuous process. Social studies as an area of education is not static; it will not remain unchanged. However, if teachers do not continue to grow personally and professionally with university courses, they are likely to experience reduced effectiveness. Teachers need to be professional students, for education is a lifelong process. The school system should absorb the cost of continuing teacher education. Without this commitment and support by the schools, teachers who are relevant today to the needs of their students and who make social studies exciting and worthwhile will find that before the end of this decade they may have joined the ranks of the irrelevant and boring social studies teachers.

Chapter VI

The Challenge

THE MAJOR CONCERN of the social studies should be the evolving individual. The effective person in our society, today and tomorrow, needs new knowledge, attitudes, and skills and renewed old ones. Our changing society calls for a person who is forever sensing, assessing, valuing, and then altering his belief system and who acts according to his new perceptions with conviction and confidence. In social studies education, the individual should have experienced numerous encounters that promote the development of his analytical skills, his valuing powers with accompanying value organizations, his moral referents, his self-confidence, and his ability to act. Along with this flexibility and commitment to action for change is a need for humaneness. The individual must have developed an empathy for others and an openness to the views and actions of others. In a world of rapid and dramatic change, it is this quality of humaneness which will enable people to cope with and work through the problems of an ever-emerging society.

It is not possible to quantify this individual. Indeed, the concept of the evolving individual means that the person is constantly interacting with his environment, and from such interactions is processing information, adjusting perceptions, perfecting skills, and altering values. The evolving individual is capable of generalizing from his experience and of committing himself to action.

This is not a contemplative, timid, passive person who is just an intelligent observer of the passing parade of life, but rather he is a caring, thinking, acting person who is part of the parade and a constant contributor to it. He participates in the ever-changing, emerging society of which he is a part.

Reflections of an Evolving Individual

"Social studies has always been a bore for me. In history, it is nothing but memorize, memorize. And there are all those sermons about becoming a good citizen. It is just talk, talk, talk. I get into a lot of trouble playing around in social studies classes, and my citizenship grades are always poor in there. I am alive today! All those facts and dates and sermons about becoming a good citizen aren't ever going to do me any good.

"My friends and I like to talk about things—race problems, pollution, going to the moon. We watch TV, listen to the radio, and sometimes we read a newspaper article or a magazine when we see something interesting. There was an article about busing which three of us read. We all ride school buses now, but I just don't know how I feel about being bused into a black neighborhood. I heard my folks talking about it, and they sounded real mad. I wish I knew more about it.

"Those social studies teachers are always asking us to read about something that happened a hundred years ago. Man, I want to know about *today*. I am just no good at memorizing all that old stuff. The Revolutionary War was a long time ago, and they revolted from England about representation and all that stuff. Last year, the principal made a rule that we could not eat in the gym during basketball games. Most of us were hungry at the after-school games, and we wanted to be allowed to eat. Some of the kids got me and another guy to go see the principal. He said that we would mess up the gym by eating in there and the janitor didn't like it. I tried to get him to agree to letting us eat in the gym and then having some of us kids help the janitor clean up after each game. I did not explain it very well, and he did not think that the kids would do it. I wish that I could explain things better, 'cause I think I had a good idea.

"I read a good magazine article on how transportation changed the way people lived. It showed how the railway made over America after the Civil War. Then it raised questions about what the car is doing to the way we live. You could figure out why Los Angeles is the kind of spread-out place it is from what was said. It was real interesting.

"I went to L.A. once. My Dad drove me down through Watts. There are not many black people in my town and none in my school.

All that destruction sure scared me. People really must have been mad to have done all that. Dad said that things didn't look too bad in that part of town to him, and some of the houses weren't any different from the one I live in. I wonder why they were so mad.

"Some of the fellows who hang around the shopping center with me got real upset last winter about the city cutting down the trees on Burk Street. The city wanted to widen the street, but they ruined a pretty part of town. We talked to Pete who runs the Burger Bar and to some of our parents. They were kind of sore about it, too. Another fellow and I went down to the city hall and talked with a planning guy about it. He showed us a map of town. Burk Street was the only street coming in from the new plant on the south side of town which was not blocked by the park, the cemetery, or the high school football field. We still didn't like them cutting down the trees, but we thought getting the new plant was O.K. I guess that when something like that happens, it has all kinds of side effects. City planning looked like an important idea to me.

"The teacher got sidetracked one day, and we talked about how many people could live in the United States. I told the class about visiting the city planning office. The teacher said that was great, and then he asked a question from the book about who Malthus was. I didn't remember so I shut up. I just don't know how big our town should grow. I wouldn't want to live in a spread-out place like L.A.

"A friend of mine was telling me about the new social studies class which he is taking. They select problems which they would like to learn about and get right into the problem. One topic which they got interested in was drugs. The teacher started class with a tape on an interview with some people from a treatment center for drug addicts. They got a whole blackboard full of questions just from listening to the tape. My friend looked up opium in an encyclopedia and found out that drugs have been around a long time. Another friend in the class learned a lot about the effects of drugs on the human body. In fact, I now understand what went wrong with a couple of kids who used to go to our school. I had heard things, but it just didn't all add up until they were talking about this drug thing. After kids picked their topics in class, the teacher helped them find information and decide if it was any good. It sounded like a good idea—finding out about things you want to know.

"Maybe a social studies class like that would be O.K. Selecting topics of real interest would be great. I need to know about a lot of things, and I need to learn how to find out about them. Also, it is important to get right into the question through something real. Last year, when we were studying the Civil War, the teacher spent two weeks on the causes and battles of the war and ten minutes on the history of black people in the United States.

"I hope that I get one of the new social studies classes next year. I like a class which is alive with activity, where I am reacting instead of being told. Class should be like life itself. I could be challenged to take more responsibility for learning. I could encounter real life problems in social studies. Man, I would like a social studies class like that."

Members of the ASCD Commission on the Social Studies

BOB L. TAYLOR, Chairman
Professor of Education
University of Colorado
Boulder

SHIRLEY H. ENGLE
Professor of Education
Indiana University
Bloomington

GENEVA GAY
Afro-American Studies
University of Texas
Austin

FRANCIS P. HUNKINS
Professor of Education
University of Washington
Seattle

ETHEL OYAN
Curriculum Specialist
Sioux Falls, South Dakota

PATRICIA F. SPEARS
Social Studies Consultant
State Department of Education
Tallahassee, Florida

CLARK DOBSON
Associate Secretary
Association for Supervision and
Curriculum Development
Staff Liaison
Washington, D.C.

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